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ANCIENT AND MEDIÆVAL

GEOGRAPHY,

FOR

THE USE OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

BY CHARLES ANTHON, LL.D.,

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Omnia mortali mutantur lege creata, Nec se cognoscunt terræ vertentibus annis

us annis Manilius.

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PREFACE.

The present work is intended as a text-book for the combined study of ancient Geography and History, two branches of education that ought never to be separated, but of which the former is either entirely neglected among us, or else only taught out of superficial and defective compends. Now that classical instruction aspires to be something more than a mere ringing of changes on letters and syllables, and the recitationrooms of our colleges are beginning to have the dull routine of mere verbal translation enlivened by inquiries and investigations calculated at once to interest and improve, a knowledge of ancient sites and localities, that are more or less identified with the stirring events of former days, can not but prove an important aid in advancing the good work. ume here offered may also be found of service to those of our young countrymen who intend to pursue a course of foreign travel, and may prepare them for some of the scenes on which they are about to enter, or, at all events, may save them from the mortification of discovering only after their return from abroad how many objects of deep and abiding interest have been passed by completely unnoticed.

In preparing the work, no pains have been spared as regards the collecting of materials. The best sources of information have been consulted, and every thing calculated to interest or instruct, from whatever quarter it could be obtained, has been freely used. Instead, however, of ostentatiously encumbering each

page with authorities, it has been deemed sufficient to make this general acknowledgment in the preface, and to append to it a list of the different works, exclusive of the classical writings, that have either been consulted, or have furnished materials for the volume. The main sources of supply, however, have been the treatises of Cramer, on the ancient geography of Italy, Greece, and Asia Minor, of which the present work will be found to furnish a brief, but yet comprehensive abridgment; and the London Penny Cyclopædia. in which are embodied a variety of the most valuable articles on the subject of ancient geography and history, as well as the results of numerous recent investigations, made by modern travellers, and forming the subject of communications to the Royal Geographical Society of Great Britain. The historical sketches are principally derived from this latter source. To these may be added, Prichard's "Researches into the Physical History of Mankind," Forbiger's "Handbuch der alten Geographie," and Sickler's "Handbuch der alten Geographie."

The present work professes to be a system, not merely of ancient, but also of mediæval geography. This latter division of the subject, however, has only been so far attended to as was rendered absolutely necessary for the clearer understanding of particular cases. To have entered more minutely into mediæval details would have made the work too voluminous, without adding much to its utility. Even as it is, the book is a large one, but by no means too large for the object in view. Ancient geography, in order to be studied to advantage, must be studied thoroughly and carefully; and it is a very mistaken idea to suppose that a mere enumeration of names of places, with a few brief remarks appended, or a regular historical work, with short sketches added in order to give it a geo-

graphical appearance, can prove of any real advantage, or produce any lasting impression on the mind of the learner. Besides, the arrangement of the present volume is such as to answer for two courses of instruction: the first a general one, confined to the more prominent and leading topics; the second, one entering more into details, and intended for advanced students; for it ought to be carefully borne in mind, that geographical and historical studies, particularly the former, should accompany the pupil, in a greater or less degree, throughout every stage of his academic and collegiate career.

It was the intention of the editor to have prepared a series of maps and plans for the present work, but the recent appearance of Findlay's Classical Atlas has for the present obviated any necessity for so doing. Atlas (which may be procured from the publishers of the present volume) will be found to answer all the purposes of the student. It is undoubtedly the best collection of Classical Maps, for its size, that has hitherto appeared, and the interesting information contained in the Introduction renders the work doubly valuable. It must be borne in mind, however, that whenever discrepancies occur between our text and the Atlas of Findlay, the former is to be followed, as being based on later or more reliable authority. These discrepancies, however, are comparatively few in number, and are principally confined to the Maps of Ancient Spain. Our guides in fixing sites and localities have been the best and most recent European Atlases, a list of which will be found below.

It only remains for the editor to express his acknowledgments, as usual, to his friend and colleague, Professor Drisler, for his valuable co-operation in, and supervision of the present work; and to his friend and former pupil, Mr. John M'Mullen, to whom he is

indebted for many important maps and plans brought by him from Europe, and also for not a few valuable suggestions, the fruit of well-directed foreign travel.

CHARLES ANTHON.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE, Sept. 10th, 1849.

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EURŌPA.

1. NAME.

I. The name "Europe" ($\text{E}\dot{\nu}\rho\omega\pi\eta$) first occurs in the so-called Homeric hymn to Apollo, where it embraces merely Greece, exclusive of the Peloponnesus, together with Macedonia, Illyricum, and Italy.

II. Herodotus says he does not know how the appellation came to be given to Europe, except it were from Europa, the daughter of Agenor, king of Tyre; but he seems hardly satisfied with this explanation.

III. In all probability, the name is of Phœnician origin, and denotes the "Evening-Land," that is, the land of sunset or gloom, in opposition to Asia, the "Land of Light."

Obs. 1. The passage referred to above, in the Hymn to Apollo, occurs at v. 73, sq., and is as follows:

ημέν ὅσοι Πελοπόννησον πίειραν ἔχουσιν, ηδ' ὅσοι Εὐρώπην τε καὶ ἀμφιρύτους κατὰ νήσους.

Reiz, however, proposes to read here * H $\pi \epsilon \iota \rho o \nu$ for $E \dot{\iota} \rho \acute{\omega} \pi \eta \nu$. Compare Ilgen and Hermann, $ad\ loc$.

- 2. The passage of Herodotus referred to in § II. occurs at iv., 45. It is important as giving a hint respecting the true origin of the name in the language of Phænicia.
- 3. The Phænician term, from which the name of Europe is probably derived, may be traced in the Hebrew *Ereb*, i. e., "Evening." Bochart is altogether too ranciful in deducing the name of Europe from the Semitic *Ur-appa*, or terra λευκοπρόςωπος. (Phaleg., col. 298.)

2. EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.

I. The circuit and boundaries of Europe do not appear to have been clearly and definitely settled among the Greeks and Romans until the time of Ptolemy the geographer.

II. At the period when Herodotus flourished, the River Phasis was regarded by some as the eastern boundary of Europe; by others, the Tanaïs. In the time of Plato the Phasis was viewed as the boundary; but in that of Eratosthenes, the Ta-

naïs. In this latter opinion Pomponius Mela and Ptolemy also

agree.

III. According to Ptolemy, the boundaries of Europe are as follows: on the north, the Northern Ocean or Icy Sea; on the west, the Atlantic; on the south, the Mediterranean; on the east and southeast, the River Tanaïs (now Don), the Palus Mæotis (now Sea of Azof or Assow), the Pontus Euxinus (now Black Sea), the Propontis (now Sea of Marmara), the Hellespont (now Dardanelles), and a part of the Ægean.

Obs. 1. The language of Herodotus is as follows (iv., 45): οὐρίσματα αὐτῆ $(\gamma \tilde{p})$ Νείλός τε ὁ Αἰγώπτιος ποταμὸς ἐτέθη, καὶ Φᾶσις ὁ Κόλχος · οἱ δὲ Τάναϊν ποταμόν τὸν Μαιήτην καὶ Πορθμήϊα τὰ Κιμμέρια λέγουσι.

2. The passage of Plato referred to occurs in the Phædon (109, B.): ἡμᾶς οἰκεῖν μέχρις Ἡρακλείων στηλῶν ἀπὸ Φάσιδος ἐν σμικρῷ τινὶ μορίῳ, κ. τ. λ. Compare Agathem., i., 1: Ἡσίας δὲ καὶ Εὐρώπης οἱ μὲν ἀρχαῖοι λέγονσι Φᾶσιν ποταμὸν

καὶ τὸν ἔως Κασπίας ἰσθμόν.

3. The Phasis was the principal river in ancient Colchis, and is called at the present day the Faz, and sometimes the Rion. It flows in a westerly direction into the Euxine. Its having been selected by some as the eastern boundary of Europe appears to have arisen from the circumstance of its having been better known to the earlier Greeks than the Tanaïs, through the legend of the Argonautic expedition, in which mention is made of it. (Cellarius, Geog. Ant., i., 11.)

4. Eratosthenes (ap. Strab., i., p. 174, ed. Tzsch.) makes the Tanaïs the more commonly recognized boundary between Europe and Asia. He adds, however, that some regarded as the eastern boundary the neck of land between the Caspian and Euxine. Compare Mela, i., 3, 1: "Europa terminos habet ab Oriente

Tanaim, et Maotida, et Pontum," &c.

3. Ancient Population, & c.

I. The original population of Europe appears to have consisted of Finnish nations, belonging probably to the same stock with the primitive nations of Southern India, or the Dekhan.

II. Many ages after the settlement of these Finnish tribes, the great Celtic race came in from the East, and thus formed the first and earliest branch of the great Indo-European family.

III. This Celtic race consisted originally of the priestly and military classes only; but, on coming in contact with the Finnish nations already established in Europe, they reduced these to vassalage; and hence we find in all Celtic countries a lower easte, deprived of all civil rights, and looked upon as mere vassals or serfs.

IV. After the Celtic race had spread themselves over and subjugated a large portion of Europe, the Teutonic tribes came in from the east and drove the Celtæ farther toward the west;

and it is from the fact of the Celtic nations, when first noticed in history, occupying the western extremities of Europe, that we draw the inference of their having been among the earliest tribes that migrated from Asia.

V. The Teutonic tribes were of a pure Indo-European origin, and did not mix with any conquered race, as is plainly shown by the perfect equality which prevailed among them, and from the people being all free.

VI. After the Teutonic tribes came the great Sclavonic race, which spread itself over a wide extent of both Asia and Europe, namely, from the Pacific to the Baltic, from the Adriatic to the Arctic Sea. And the boundary in early times between the Sclavonic and Teutonic tribes was the River Vistula.

VII. The different tribes that spoke the Sclavonic tongue were known to the ancients under the names of Rhoxolāni, Krobyzi, Sarmātæ, Sauromātæ, Pannonians, Illyrians, and Venēdi or Wenīdæ. At present the Sclavonic language is spoken by the Russians, Poles, Bulgarians, Bohemians, Moravians, &c.

VIII. It appears, moreover, from the researches of philologists, that the common or Pelasgian element of the Greek and Latin languages was allied to the Sclavonic tongue. In support of which opinion it may be stated, that the resemblance of the Russian to the Latin tongue is very remarkable, and that coincidences equally striking may be found between the Sclavonic tongues and the most ancient monuments of the Greek language.

IX. The additional or Hellenic element of the Greek, which afterward pervaded the whole language, seems to have come from the East by Asia Minor; at any rate, we find that the Hellenes make their first appearance in the northeastern quarter of Greece.

X. On the other hand, the Latin language appears to have arisen from an intermingling of the Sclavonic element with both a Celtic and a Teutonic one, it being highly probable that Celtic and Teutonic tribes had previously settled in succession in the Italian peninsula.

Obs. 1. On the settlement of the Finnish nations in Europe, compare the remarks of Prichard, Researches into the Physical History of Mankind, vol. iv., p. 605. Arndt has shown very clearly that a connection existed, in point of language, between the Celtic nations and the Finns, Samoiedes, &c., and in this way we may account for the striking resemblance between so many words in

the Basque language, a branch of the Celtic, and the Samoiede and other Fin-

nish tongues. (Arndt, Ursprung der Europ. Sprachen, p. 17, seqq.)

2. The claims of the Celtic to be regarded as one of the Indo-European languages have been fully established by Prichard, in his Eastern Origin of the Celtic Nations, Oxford, 1831; and by Pictet, De l'Affinité des Langues Celtiques avec le Sanscrit, Paris, 1837.

3. The origin of the Indo-European languages is traceable to Irân, a country bounded on the north by the Caspian, on the south by the Indian Ocean, on the east by the Indus, and on the west by the Euphrates. This region, therefore, is regarded by the best authorities as the original home of the great Indo-European Caspinal Property of the Property of the Indo-European Languages is traceable to Irân, a country bounded on the north by the Caspian, on the south by the Indian Ocean, on the cast by the Indian Ocean, on the Indian Ocean, or Indian Oc

pean race. (Donaldson, New Cratylus, p. 80, seq.)

4. On the affinity between the Russian and the Latin, consult the work of Galiffe, "Italy and its Inhabitants," &c., vol. i., p. 356, seqq.; and compare the remarks of Winning, "Manual of Comparative Philology," p. 121. In relation to the affinity between the Sclavenic and the Greek, consult the work of Dankovsky, "Homerus Slavicis dialectis cognata lingua scripsit," &c., Vindob., 1829; and compare Donaldson, New Crat., p. 92.

5. On the origin of the Latin tongue, consult the work of Klotz, "Handbuch

der lat. Literaturgesch., vol. i., p. 157, seqq.

4. PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

I. The earliest notices of the history of Europe are in the writings of the Greeks, who inhabited the southeastern corner of that continent.

II. From this country the geographical knowledge of Europe extended by degrees to the west and north.

III. Homer, who probably lived about one thousand years before the Christian era, was acquainted with the countries around the Ægean Sea, or Archipelago.

IV. He had also a pretty accurate general notion respecting those countries which lie on the south coast of the Euxine; but what he says about the countries west of Greece, on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, is a mixture of fable and truth, in which the fabulous part prevails.

V. It would seem that in his age these seas were not yet visited by his countrymen, and that he obtained his knowledge from the Phænicians, who had probably for some time sailed to these countries, but who, according to the common policy of trading nations, spread abroad false accounts of these unknown regions, in order to deter other nations from following their track, and sharing in the advantages of this distant commerce.

VI. It is probable, also, that the Phœnicians long excluded the Greeks from the navigation of the Mediterranean; for, when the Greeks began to form settlements beyond their native country, they first occupied the shores of the Ægean, and afterward those of the Euxine.

VII. As the European shores of the Euxine are not well adapted for agriculture, except a comparatively small tract of the Peninsula of Crimea, their early settlements were mostly made on the Asiatic shores, and consequently little addition was made by these colonies to the geographical knowledge of Europe.

VIII. But the navigation of the Phœnicians was checked, in the middle of the sixth century before Christ, apparently by their country being subjugated by the Persians.

IX. About this time, also, the Greeks began to form settlements in the southern parts of Italy, and on the island of Sicily, and to navigate the Mediterranean Sea in its full extent.

X. Accordingly we find that, in the time of Herodotus (450 B.C.), not only the countries on each side of the Mediterranean, and the northern shores of the Euxine, were pretty well known to the Greeks, but that, following the track of the Phænicians, they ventured to pass the Columns of Hercules, and to sail as far as the Cassiterides, or Tin Islands, by which name the southwestern part of England must be understood.

XI. It is even said that some of their navigators sailed through the English Channel, and entered the North Sea, and perhaps even the Baltic.

XII. It must be observed, however, that Herodotus professes himself totally unacquainted with the islands called Cassiterides; and Strabo expresses a very unfavorable opinion of the alleged voyages to the north.

XIII. Thus a considerable part of the coasts of Europe was discovered, while the interior remained almost unknown.

XIV. When the Romans began their conquests, this deficiency was partly filled up. The conquest of Italy was followed by that of Spain and the southern parts of Gaul, and, not long afterward, Sicily, Greece, and Macedonia were added.

XV. Cæsar conquered Gaul and the countries west of the Rhine, together with the districts lying between the different arms by which that river enters the sea. His two expeditions into Britain made known, also, in some measure, the nature of that island and its inhabitants.

XVI. Thus, in the course of little more than two hundred

years, the interior of all those countries was discovered, the shores alone of which had been previously known.

XVII. In the mean time nothing was added to the knowledge of the coasts, the Greeks having lost their spirit of discovery by sea with their liberty, and the Romans not being inclined to naval enterprise.

XVIII. After the establishment of imperial power at Rome, the conquests of the Romans went on at a much slower rate. and the boundaries of the empire soon became stationary. This circumstance must be chiefly attributed to the nature of the countries which were contiguous to the boundaries. The regions north of the Danube are mostly plains, and at that time were only inhabited by wandering nations, who could not be subjected to a regular government. Such, at least, are the countries extending between the Carpathian Mountains and the Euxine; and, therefore, the conquest of Dacia by Trajan was of short continuance, and speedily abandoned.

XIX. The most important addition to the empire and to geographical knowledge was the conquest of England during the first century after Christ, to which, in the following century, the south of Scotland was added.

XX. Nothing seems to have been added afterward. The geography of Ptolemy contains a considerable number of names of nations, places, and rivers in those countries which were not subjected to the Romans. Probably they were obtained from natives, and from Roman traders who had ventured to penetrate beyond the boundaries of the empire. But these brief notices are very vague, and, in most cases, it is very difficult to determine what places and positions are indicated.

XXI. The overthrow of the Roman empire by the northern barbarians destroyed a large part of the geographical knowledge previously obtained, except, perhaps, as to that part of Germany which was subject to the Franks, and which, by degrees, became better known than it was before.

XXII. Two sets of men, however, soon made their appearance, who contributed largely to extend the geographical knowledge of Europe, namely, missionaries and pirates.

XXIII. The Christian religion had been introduced into all the countries subject to the Roman power. The barbarians who subverted the empire soon became converts to the Christian faith, and some of them ventured among other barbarous nations for the purpose of converting them also.

XXIV. They visited the natives who inhabited the eastern part of Germany, but here their progress was at first slow; they did not cross the River Oder, or at least they did not venture far beyond it, and the geographical knowledge of this part of Europe was, consequently, not much increased.

XXV. The progress of those missionaries was more important who penetrated from Constantinople into the interior of Russia, where they succeeded in converting to the Greek Church the different tribes into which the Russians were then divided. This was effected in the ninth century.

XXVI. In the tenth century the western missionaries penetrated into and gradually converted Poland, and in the thirteenth century Christianity was introduced among the Prussians by force of arms, the Knights of St. John having conquered the country.

XXVII. To the pirates we are indebted for our acquaintance with the northern parts of Europe, especially the Scandinavian peninsula; this, however, was not owing to pirates who went to, but to pirates who came from these countries.

XXVIII. The Northmen or Normans, who inhabited Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, first laid waste and then settled in part of France, and afterward conquered England. In their new settlements they maintained a communication with their native countries, which thus gradually became known wherever the Normans had settled.

5. OCEANS, SEAS, AND GULFS.

I. The seas and numerous gulfs by which the European peninsula is washed constitute one of the characteristic features of this part of the world. No such vast bodies of water, penetrating deeply inland, are found in Asia or Africa, or even in the New World, to the same extent as in Europe.

II. The influence of these on the temperature, which they render humid and variable, is sensibly felt. They serve also to assist communication and trade, and, conjointly with the mountain chains, they form barriers to defend the independence of nations.

III. On the west lies that wide sea, till the time of Colum-

bus unpassed, by which the Old World is divided from the New. This was called by the Greeks ή 'Ατλαντική Θάλασσα, by the Romans Mare Atlanticum, and is now the Atlantic Ocean.

. IV. In the north we find the Arctic Ocean, with that deep and frozen inlet known by the name of the White Sea. These two were ealled by the general name of ὁ Κρόνιος 'Ωκεανός, Mare Cronium, or Pigrum.

V. Descending from the high north, we enter, below Cape Stat in Norway, a gulf called the North Sea, extending from the Shetland Isles to the Straits of Dover and coast of Entered. This was called Many Communication

gland. This was ealled Mare Germanicum.

VI. To the entrance of the channel which lies between Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, three small straits leave openings for communication with the Mediterranean of the North, the Baltic Sea. The Baltie was called Mare Sucvicum, and its southwestern part the Sinus Codanus.

VII. Retracing our course, we pass the Straits of *Dover*, called anciently *Fretum Gallicum*, and enter the *British Channel*, or *Oceanus Britannicus*, narrow and of little depth, but exposed to the winds and tides of the Atlantic.

VIII. Crossing the Bay of Biscay, or Oceanus Cantabricus, and sailing through the Straits of Gibraltar, or Fretum Herculeum, we find ourselves in the Mediterranean Sca, called by the Romans Mare Internum, or Nostrum.

IX. The western portion of the Mediterranean ends at Cape Bon, on the coast of Africa, the ancient Hermæum Promonto-rium, and at Messina in Sicily, the ancient Zancle, or Messana.

X. This western portion is itself divided into two unequal parts by the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, of which parts the more western one contains the Balcares and Pityusæ Insulæ; while the eastern one, or Sea of *Italy*, is scattered with volcanic islands, connected, no doubt, with the common focus which feeds the fires of Vesuvius and Ætna.

XI. The second, or eastern portion of the Mediterranean, nearly double the extent of the western one mentioned under IX., stretches uninterrupted from the coasts of Sicily and Tunis to those of Syria and Egypt.

XII. In the north of this eastern portion of the Mediterranean are found two inlets, celebrated in history, and important in geography. These are the Adriatic, or Sinus Hadriaticus, and

the Archipelago, or Mare Ægæum, the latter covered with groups of islands.

XIII. But the most remarkable of the seas connected with the Mediterranean is the *Black Sea*, or *Pontus Euxinus*.

XIV. The magnificent entrance to this is formed, 1. By the Strait of the *Dardanelles*, or ancient *Hellespontus*; then, 2. By the Sea of *Marmara*, the ancient *Propontis*; and, lastly, 3. By the Strait of *Constantinople*, or the ancient *Bosporus Thracius*.

XV. The Black Sea, or Euxine, fed by the largest rivers of Europe, receives through the Strait of Caffa, or Feodosia, called anciently Bosporus Cimmerius, the waters of the Sea of Azof or Assow, the ancient Palus Mæōtis.

XVI. Here terminates the series of inland seas, which, separating Europe from Asia and Africa, serve as the medium of communication between the more important parts of those quarters of the globe.

XVII. It has been conjectured that a strait, subsequently filled up by the soil torn from Caucasus, united, at a period beyond the reach of authenticated history, but posterior to the great convulsions of the globe, the Palus Mæotis to the Caspian Sea.

Obs. 1. Various other names for the Atlantic, besides those given in § I., are found in the ancient writers, a few of which may be here mentioned: $\dot{\eta}$ ξξω στηλέων θάλασσα, and $\dot{\eta}$ 'Ατλαντίς (Herod., i., 202; Aristot., Meteor., ii., 1; Agathem., de Geogr., ii., 14, p. 56); $\dot{\eta}$ ξξω καὶ μεγάλη θάλαττα (Aristot., Probl., XXVI., 55); $\dot{\eta}$ ξκτὸς θάλαττα (Polyb., XXVI., 29); Mare Magnum, Mare externum, &c. (Flor., iv., 2). The Mediterranean is called by the Greeks "Ηδε $\dot{\eta}$ Θάλασσα, Hdt.

2. Other names for the Arctic Ocean are Oceanus Boreālis, Arctōus, Septentrionalis, Mare glaciale, &c. According to Philemon, as quoted by Pliny (H. N., iv., 27), the Cronian Sea lay beyond the Rubeas Promontorium, while on this side of the same promontory lay what the Cimbric nations called Morimarusa, or "the Dead Sea," a name derived from its frozen state. The Mare Amalchium, or "the congealed sea," also a native term, extended, according to Hecatæus (Plin., l. c.), along the coast of Scythia. The explanation of the term Cronium has been sought in the Celtic croinn, "thick," "coagulated" (Class. Journ., vol. vi., p. 297), while others, far less plausibly, deduce the appellation from the Danish groen, "green," a root existing also in the name of Greenland. (Plin., H. N., Panckoucke, vol. iii., p. 312.) The name Morimarusa has been traced to the Cymric or Welsh mor, "sea," and marv, "dead." (Class. Journ., l. c.)

3. It is a very common error to make the Sinus Codanus an ancient appellation for the entire Baltic. On the contrary, it answers merely to the Gulf of Kattegat, in the southwestern part. In the name Codanus we may see a resemblance to that of the great Gothic race. The term Baltic appears to be derived from the northern balt, or belt, denoting a collection of water; whence, also, the name of the straits, Great and Little Belt.

- 4. The Euxine, or Πόντος Εὐξεινος, was originally called 'Αξενος by the Greeks, that is, "the inhospitable sea," from the savage tribes surrounding it. When commerce became extended, and colonies were planted along its borders, it changed its name to Εὔξεινος, or "the hospitable."
- 5. The term Bosporus (commonly, but erroneously, written Bosphorus) is the Greek Bóςπορος, and means strictly ox-ford (βοῦς, πόρος), and is generally supposed to be connected with the legend of Io. Some, however, maintain, that πόρος, when said of a river, does not mean a ford or pass across the stream, but the passage or road which the stream itself affords in the direction of its length; and that, taking Boς (or βοῦς) merely as an intensive prefix, we will have Bόςπορος, signifying, properly, a large and broad stream or river. (Griffiths, ad Esch., P. V., 733.)

6. RIVERS.

- I. The main rivers of Europe are six in number, arranged as follows, according to their respective sizes:
 - 1. The Volga, anciently called Rha.
 - 2. " Danube, " " Danubius, or Ister.
 - 3. " Dnieper, " " Borysthěnes.
 - 4. "Don, "Tanăis.
 - 5. "Rhine, " "Rhenus.
 - 6. " Dwina, " Carambăcis.
 - II. Those next to them in rank are eight in number, namely,
 - 1. The Po, anciently called Padus.
 - 2. "Rhone, " "Rhodănus.
 - 3. " Ebro, " " Ibērus.
 - 4. "Guadalquivir, "Bætis.
 - 5. "Tagus, "Tagus.
 - 6. "Loire, "Liger.
 - 7. " Elbe, " " Albis.
 - 8. " Vistula, " " Vistula.
- III. All of these eight united would scarcely be equivalent to the Volga alone.
- Obs. 1. The name *Rha* appears to be an appellative term, having an affinity with *Rhea* or *Reka*, which in the Sclavonic tongue signified "a river;" and from the Russian denomination of *Velika Rheka*, or "Great River," appears to be formed the name *Volga*. In the Byzantine and other writers of the Middle Ages, this stream is called *Atel* or *Etcl*, a term signifying, in many northern languages, "great" or "illustrious," with which we may compare the German *Adel*.
- 2. The Borysthenes was called, in a later age, Danapris, or Danapřis (Δανά-πρις), whence the modern name is formed. The appellation Danapris first occurs in an anonymous periplus of the Euxine. (Geogr. Gr. Min., iii., p. 298, ed. Gail.) The root of the name (Dan-) is found, also, in that of the Tanaïs, Danubius, Rhodanus, Eridanus, &c., and is supposed to mean "water," or "river."
 - 3. The Carambacis is mentioned by Pliny (H. N., vi., 13). Hardouin makes it

correspond to the *Dwina*, while others seek to identify it with the *Niemen*. (*Plin.*, ed. *Panck.*, v., p. 220.) The former appears to be the true opinion.

7. MOUNTAINS.

I. The *Ural* Mountains, probably the ancient *Montes Rhipæi*, or *Hyperborei*, are common to Europe and Asia. They can not be said to constitute a regular chain, but rise gradually and insensibly from the centre of Russia, in a direction east-northeast.

II. Far in the west, the Scandinavian Alps (Mount *Kjölen*), probably the *Sevo Mons* of antiquity, present a more marked chain, but wholly unconnected with the rest of the European mountains. They extend from Cape *Lindesnæs* in Norway, to Cape *North* in the island of *Mageroc*.

III. The *Grampian* or *Caledonian* Mountains, in Britannia. the *Mons Grampius* of the ancients, constitute an insulated group of several parallel chains of no great comparative height. Of these the Welsh Mountains, and those in the northwest of England, appear to be inferior branches.

IV. The north and east of Europe may therefore be considered as one uniform plain, over which, in the west, the Caledonian and Scandinavian Mountains rise insulated. Very different, however, is the character of central and southern Europe. From the Columns of Hercules to the Bosporus, from Ætna to Blocksberg, all the mountains constitute in reality but one system, which custom has divided into four masses.

V. The most celebrated of these are the Alps, called by the Romans *Alpes*, of which one of the principal chains, *Alpes Pennina*, contains *Mont Blanc*, the highest point in Europe.

VI. South of these are the *Apennines*, called by the Romans *Apennini*, a branch of the Alps, extending through Italy.

VII. An eastern branch of the Alps passes between the affluents of the Danube and the Adriatic, and thus unites the Alpine chain to that of Mount *Hæmus*, the modern *Balkan*.

VIII. The northern branch of the Alps comprises the Jura range, or Mons Jura, and that of the Vosges, or Mount Vogĕsus. The latter is connected with the mountains of Central Germany, and consequently with the Carpathian range, the ancient Montes Carpăti or Carpatici.

IX. The Cevennes, the ancient Mons Cebenna, or Montes

Cebennici, although connected with the Pyrenees by the Black Mountain, and separated from the Alps by the narrow valley of the Rhone, are regarded as forming part of the system of the Alps.

X. The peninsula of the *Pyrenees*, or *Montes Pyrenæi*, may be regarded as a central plateau of considerable elevation, on which rise various distinctly-marked chains of mountains. The Pyrenees in the north, and the *Alpujarras*, or *Sierra Nevada* in the south, the *Mons Ilipūla* of the Romans, are the grand bulwarks.

XI. At the other extremity of Europe, Hæmus and its branches fiil a peninsula, not less remarkable than those of Italy and Spain. Witoscha Berg, or the ancient Scomius, north of Macedonia, may be regarded as a centre, whence proceed four chains: that of the Albano-Dalmatian Mountains, the ancient Scardus, Bertiscus, Adrius, Bebii Montes, and Albanus, which connect themselves with the Alps; that of Hæmus, properly so called, the modern Balkan, which extends due east to the Euxine; that of Rhödöpe, now Despoto Dag, running down through Thrace, along the River Nestus, not far from the western boundary; and, finally, the fourth, which, under the poetical names of Olympus, Pindus, Œta, Parnassus, Helicon, and Lycœus, crosses the whole of Greece.

XII. The Carpathian or Hercynian system is separated from the Alps and Hæmus by the basin of the Danube. In two places, namely, in *Austria*, and between *Servia* and *Wallachia*, the branches of these systems approach so closely that the river is obliged to work its way through real defiles.

XIII. The principal parts of the Carpathian system are the Transylvanian Mountains, or Alpes Bastarnicæ; the Carpathian Mountains, or Montes Carpatici, between Hungary and Poland; the Riesengebirge (Giant-mountains), or Vandalici Montes, between Silesia and Bohemia, and the Erzgebirge, or Metalliferi Montes, between Bohemia and Saxony; and, finally, the different small chains of central Germany, comprised anciently in the Hercynian forest, or Silva Hercynia.

Having given this slight sketch of the physical geography of Europe, we shall now proceed to examine how far the knowledge of the ancients extended respecting each of its parts, commencing from the west with *Hispania*, or Spain.

HISPANIA.

1. EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Under the name of Hispania the Romans comprehended the whole of that peninsula which is now divided into the separate kingdoms of *Spain* and *Portugal*.

II. It was bounded on the north by the Montes Pyrenæi, or Pyrenæs, which separated it from Gallia, or France, and also by the Oceanus Cantabricus, or Bay of Biscay; on the west by the Oceanus Atlanticus, or Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the Mare Internum, or Mediterranean Sea; and on the south by the Oceanus Atlanticus and Mare Internum, which unite in the Fretum Gaditanum or Herculeum, now the Strait of Gibraltar.

2. Names.

I. The name Hispania is probably of Phænician origin, and appears to have been borrowed, with a slight alteration, by the Romans from the Carthaginians, through whom they first became acquainted with the land.

- II. The Greeks gave the country the name of Iberia (Ἰδηρία), but attached to this appellation different ideas at different times.

III. The earlier Greeks, down to the time of the Achæan league, when they began to be better acquainted with Roman affairs, understood by Iberia the whole Mediterranean coast from the Fretum Herculeum to the mouth of the Rhodānus or Rhone; while they gave the name of Tartessus (Ταρτησσός) to a district on the Atlantic coast, near the Fretum Herculeum and Gades, or Cadiz.

IV. The interior of the country, on the other hand, for which the natives themselves had no common appellation, the earlier Greeks designated as part of the great region of Celtica ($\dot{\eta}$ Keltuk $\dot{\eta}$), a name which they gave to the whole of western and northwestern Europe.

V. The lapse of time gradually brought about a change in these geographical ideas, and the later Greeks understood by Iberia the same country which the Romans called Hispania.

VI. The writers of the second and third centuries of our era were the first who regularly introduced the Latin name into the Greek language, namely, 'Ισπανία, although both this and the form $\Sigma \pi a \nu i a$ are occasionally found in somewhat earlier writers.

VII. Spain was also called by the Romans, especially the poets, Hesperia, or the Western land, from its lying west of Italy; but, as Italy itself was denominated Hesperia (Έσπερία) by the Greek poets, a distinction was sometimes made, and Spain was called Hesperia ultima.

OBS. 1. The name Hispania is said to come from the Phænician saphan, or, as some write the word, span, "a rabbit," as meaning "the land of rabbits," and the Phænicians are reported to have given it this name from the great number of these animals which they found there, as well as from the injury which they did to the crops, &c., by their burrowing. (Bochart, Gcogr. Sacr., iii., 7, col. 168.) Others derive the word from the Phænician span, in the sense of "hidden," and make it indicate "a hidden," that is, "a remote," or "fardistant land." (Malte Brun, Prècis de la Geogr., t. iv., p. 318.) Others, however, regard the Spanish form Espanna as the original one, and derive it from Ezpanna, the Basque term for "a border" or "edge," that is, the outermost part of any thing, and hence, according to them, the country in question was so called from its position at the southwestern extremity of Europe. (Compare W. Von Humboldt, Prüfung, &c., p. 60.)

2. Pliny (H. N., iii., 4) deduces the name Iberia from that of the River Iberus, the modern Ebro. Humboldt, with good reason, regards this as very improbable, and thinks that the true etymology may be traced in the Basque term Ibarra, "a dale" or "valley." (Prüfung, &c., l. c.) Others refer the term to the Phænician Iber, or Eber, "beyond," or "over," and make Iberia mean "the country beyond the sea." (Sickler, Handbuch d. alt. Geogr., i., p. 4.) This last

appears to be the most plausible derivation.

3. Compare, as regards Tartessus, Scymn., Ch., v. 164, v. 198; Bähr, ad Hcrod., i., 163, and page 43 of this volume. With respect to the general meaning of Celtica, consult Mannert, Geogr., i., p. 234.

4. Among the writers prior to, or in the early part of the second century of our era, in whom the forms $I\sigma\pi\alpha\nu i\alpha$ and $\Sigma\pi\alpha\nu i\alpha$ occasionally appear, may be mentioned Strabo, iii., p. 252, Casaub.; Plutarch, de Flumin., p. 32; and also St. Paul, Ep. ad Rom., xv., 24, 28.

5. As regards the term Hesperia, compare Mannert, Geogr., i., p. 234; Georgii, Alte Geogr. Abth., ii., p. 7. Horace has Hesperia ultima, Od., i., 36, 4.

3. EARLY AND LATER INHABITANTS.

I. The earliest inhabitants of the land with whom history makes us acquainted were the Cynesii or Cynetes, the Cempsi and Sæfes, the Tartessii, and the Iberi.

II. These five early communities appear, as far as we can gather from the imperfect and scattered accounts of the Greek writers, to have been settled in this country before the period of the first Persian war, or about 600 B.C. It is more than probable, however, that the primitive population of Hispania all belonged to one great race, namely, the Iberian.

III. The Cynesii ($Kvv\eta\sigma\iota\sigma\iota$), called, also, Cynētes ($K\acute{v}v\eta\tau\epsilon\varsigma$), are said to have dwelt on both banks of the River Anas, or *Guadiana*, near its mouth. Their western limit coincides with the modern *Faro* in *Algarve*, and their eastern one with the bay and islands formed by the small rivers Luxia and Urium, the modern *Odiel* and *Tinto*.

IV. To the west of the Cynesii, in the part subsequently called Cuneus, dwelt the Cempsi and Sæfes.

V. On the lower coast, in a northwest direction from the Fretum Herculeum, and in the vicinity of Gades, now Cadiz, and the mouth of the Bætis, or Guadalquivir, were the Tartessii ($Ta\rho\tau\dot{\eta}\sigma\sigma\iota o\iota$), who, at the period when the Phocæans settled in Spain, were ruled over by a king named Arganthonius.

VI. The Iberi occupied the Mediterranean coast of the country in its whole extent, and also a large portion of the interior. They even extended into Gaul, occupying the coast as far as the mouth of the Rhodanus, or *Rhone*.

VII. We come next in order to the immigrating nations and the foreign settlers who subsequently established themselves in the land. These were, 1. The Celtæ; 2. The Phanicians; 3. The Phocaans; 4. The Rhodians; 5. The Massaliots; 6. The Zacynthians; 7. The Carthaginians; 8. The Romans.

VIII. The Celtæ appear to have crossed the Pyrenees, and passed into Spain, at a period long antecedent to positive history. After penetrating into the interior of the country, and waging long and bloody wars with the powerful race of the Iberi, they finally united with a portion of them, and formed one people, who, under the name of Celtibēri, distinguished themselves at a later period in their resistance to the Carthaginian, and subsequently to the Roman sway.

IX. Some of the Celtæ, however, separating from the main body, settled on both banks of the Anas, toward its mouth; while another portion of them wandered as far as the northwestern extremity of the land, where later geographical writers found them under the name of Artabri. The portion, however, which had settled on the Anas, retained their original appellation of Celtæ or Celtici.

X. The Phænicians also appear to have become acquainted with Spain long prior to positive history, but whether before or after the great Celtic immigration is altogether uncertain. It was doubtless, however, long before the foundation of either Rome or Carthage. For some time their settlements, of which Ghadir, called by the Romans Gades, now Cadiz, was the principal, were limited to the coasts of Bætica, whence they supplied the natives with the products of Asia, in exchange for the gold, silver, iron, and other valuable products of the Peninsula. But as they became better acquainted with the country, they penetrated into the interior, where they founded Kartabah, called by the Romans Corduba, and now Cordova, and explored the mountainous districts of Navarre in search of iron.

XI. The Phænicians, however, were not the only maritime nation which had settlements on the coast of Spain. The Phocæans founded the town of Dianium, which is now *Denia*, and probably, also, that of Chersonesus, now *Peniscola*, on the eastern coast.

XII. The Rhodians visited the shores of what is now *Catalonia*, and founded a town which they called Rhodos or Rhoda, now *Rosas*.

XIII. The Massaliots, or Massilians, founded the town of Emporion, now *Ampurias*, and the Zacynthians Saguntum.

XIV. The Carthaginians also directed their views toward Spain. Having insidiously possessed themselves of Ghadir, or *Cadiz*, which they took from the Phænicians, they proceeded into the interior with a view to the subjugation of the country, an attempt, however, in which they completely failed.

XV. The Romans came after the Carthaginians, and succeeded in subjugating the whole of the country and making it a portion of their empire.

XVI. From what has here been said, a natural division presents itself of all the Spanish tribes, though many in number, namely, into unmixed native tribes, and tribes mixed with those that had wandered into or settled in the land.

XVII. The first of these divisions occupied the whole northern and western coasts (excepting the portions possessed by the

Artabri, in the northwest, and the Celtæ, on the Anas), the Pyrenees, and the greater part of the country lying east of the Iberus, or *Ebro*.

XVIII. The tribes coming under this division are the Lusitani, Carpetani, Callaĭci, and Vaccæi, on the western side; the Astŭres, Cantăbri, and Vascŏnes, on the northern side; the inhabitants of the Pyrenees, through which mountain regions foreign tribes had, it is true, passed, but had not settled therein, together with other Iberian communities as far as the River Iberus; and, on the south side, some of the inhabitants of the range of Mount Ortospeda, between the Celtiberi and the tribes along the coast; for example, the Oretani, Olcădes, Bastitani, &c.

XIX. The second of these divisions, or the mixed tribes, consisted of the Celtiberi, and the communities along the southern coast.

XX. The Celtiberi, in an extended sense, comprehended all the midland tribes. On the first entrance of the Celtæ into Spain, they came into contact with the Iberi, on the River Iberus. After the union of the two races, this combined people possessed the mountainous district from the western bank of the Iberus to the sources of the Durius, now *Douro*, and the Tagus.

XXI. The limits which have just been mentioned mark the possessions of the Celtiberi in the stricter sense. The race, however, grew gradually more numerous and powerful, until, at length, they proved an overmatch for their neighbors, and settled themselves in part among the possessions of the latter. Hence some writers reckoned the Vaccæi, Carpetani, Oretani, &c., among the Celtiberian communities, though this, perhaps, is going too far.

XXII. The tribes along the coast were, on the side immediately beyond the Straits of Hercules, a mixture of the earliest inhabitants with Phœnician settlers, and, on the Mediterranean side of the straits, with Phœnicians, Greeks, Carthaginians, and Romans. This intermingling with strangers caused all national peculiarities gradually to disappear. The traffic, too, which they carried on, disposed them the more readily to the receiving of foreign customs and habits; and hence the tribes in the interior held them in contempt, and made frequent inroads into their territories, from which inroads the communi-

ties on the coast found it difficult to defend themselves, even with the aid of the foreigners who had settled among them.

Obs. 1. The Iberian race was undoubtedly Caucasian. Its connection with the Finnish nations of Northern Europe has already been referred to. Many of the Spanish writers trace the descent of the Iberians from Tubal, son of Noah! (Minnano, Diccion., t. iv., p. 2.)

2. Herodotus uses both appellations, Κυνήσιοι (ii., 33) and Κύνητες (iv., 49). We obtain an account of their territory from Avienus. (Ora Marit., 200, seqq.) They are probably the same with the Conii or Cunii of the Roman writers, and their name is connected with the district called Cuncus (the modern Algarve), a name which the Romans erroneously sought to explain in their own language by making it refer to the wedge-like form of the country. (Compare Schliehthorst, über den Wohnsitz der Kynesier: Götting., 1793.)

3. Herodotus gives the account of the Phocæan settlement in Spain, and of King Arganthonius (i., 163). According to a fragment of Hecatæus of Miletus, the Tartessii dwelt immediately to the west of the straits. (Compare Herod., iv., 152, 192; Creuzer, ad Hec. Md., p. 51; Bähr, ad Herod., i., 163;

Hecren, Idean, i., 2, p. 46, seqq.)

- 4. That the Celtæ were invaders of Spain, and long posterior to the Iberi, and that the latter were the aborigines, was the general persuasion of the ancient writers. (Strab., iii., p. 162, Cas., Appian, Bell. Hisp., 2; Diod. Sic., v., 33; Lucan., iv., 9; Sil. Ital., iii., 140.) Recently, however, an opinion has been started in direct opposition to this, which makes the Celtæ to have come first into Spain, and the Iberians some time after, and the Celtæ to have given way to these through a great part of the Peninsula. (Prichard, vol. iii., p. 46.) This opinion, however, though advocated by Niebuhr and Humboldt, especially the latter, is decidedly erroneous. An insurmountable difficulty is in the way. Had the Celtæ preceded the Iberians, valiant bands of hardy Celtic mountaineers could never have been expelled from the fastnesses of the Pyrenees by the less warlike Iberians. Yet this whole tract of country was occupied solely by Iberian tribes. (Diefenbach, Versuch ciner genealog. Gesch. der Kelten: Stuttgart, 1840.)
- 5. On the traffic of the Phænicians with Spain, consult Hecren, Ideen, i., 2, p. 44, seqq. (vol. ii., p. 63, seqq., Eng. transl.). The prodigious quantity of the precious metals which the Phænicians found here on their first arrival, so excited their astonishment, that the traditions preserved respecting them seem very remarkably to suit the pictures given by the Spanish discoverers of Peru.
- 6. Strabo has $\dot{\eta}$ 'Pó δo_{ξ} (iii., p. 160, Cas.); Stephanus Byzantinus, 'Pó $\delta \eta_{*}$ (Compare Liv., xxxiv., 8; Mela, ii., 6; Scymn. Ch., 205; Meurs. Rhod., i., 28; Marca Hisp., ii., c. 18.)

4. HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

I. The Iberi, or aborigines, are disturbed in their possessions by the Celtæ, who invade the Peninsula from Gaul. From the union of a part of these Celtæ with a portion of the Iberian race arises the mixed nation of the Celtiberi.

II. The rich corn-lands, the mines, and sea-ports of the Peninsula attract the attention of the early Phænician navigators, who form settlements in various parts, especially along the coasts.

III. Settlements formed on the eastern shores by the Rhodians, Phocæans, and others of the Greeks.

IV. The Carthaginians also direct their views toward Spain, possess themselves of Gades, or *Cadiz*, which they take from the Phœnicians, and proceed into the interior with a view to the subjugation of the country, but completely fail; for, although the Carthaginian generals, Hamilcar, his brother Hasdrubal, and his far more celebrated nephew Hannibal, completely reduced the scuthern part of the Peninsula, they were unable to subdue the warlike tribes of the interior.

V. This attempt on the part of the Carthaginians leads to the second Punic war, and Spain is freed, before its close, from the Carthaginian yoke by the elder Africanus. The Spaniards, however, only change masters. Spain is made a Roman province, and divided into Citerior and Ulterior, or *Hither* and *Farther* Spain.

VI. Until the time of Augustus, the Cantabri, the Callaici, and the Astures, who inhabited the northwestern parts of the Peninsula, are not even nominally subjected to the republic; and the other portions of Spain, Celtiberia in the northeast, Bætica in the south, and Lusitania in the west, become the scene of constant warfare and rebellion.

VII. The most remarkable of the native insurrections during the period just referred to, is that organized in Lusitania by Viriathus, who, during more than eleven years, defeats the ablest generals of the republic, and is only put down by the treachery of Cæpio, B.C. 140.

VIII. Spain, soon after this, becomes the theatre of the civil war between Marius and Sulla, Sertorius, a leader of the defeated party, having fled hither, and carrying on the war for some time with great ability and success.

IX. Spain having espoused the cause of Pompey, Julius Cæsar repairs hither in person, and by his military skill triumphs over his enemies. Cneius, the son of Pompey, is defeated at Munda, and peace is restored to the country.

X. It is only under Augustus that Spain is completely subdued. Augustus himself visits Spain, and divides the country into three great provinces, Bætica, Lusitania, and Tarraconen-

sis, a division which subsists until the reign of Constantine the Great. During this period, Spain is considered one of the most valuable and flourishing provinces of the empire.

XI. About the beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, under their king Hermeric; the Alans, under Atace, and the Vandals, or Silingi, under Gunderic, after overrunning the provinces of Gaul, cross the Pyrenees, and settle in the Peninsula. They are speedily followed by a host of Visigoths (A.D. 411), led by their king Athaulf, who establishes himself in Catalonia, though nominally dependent upon his brother-in-law Honorius, the Roman emperor.

XII. It is not, however, until the time of Euric (A.D. 466–83), that the Goths become complete masters of the Peninsula; and the Gothic dynasty continues until the time of Roderic, in whose reign (A.D. 711) the Arabs of Africa, commanded by *Tárik Ibn Zeyád*, cross the straits, and, after defeating the whole force of the Gothic monarchy on the banks of the *Guadalete*, take the capital *Toledo*, the ancient Toletum.

Ons. For an able sketch of the remaining history of Spain, consult Penny Cyclopædia, vol. xxii., p. 293, seqq., from which work the above sketch is taken. And, as regards the movements of the barbarous nations that invaded, in succession, this quarter of the Roman empire, consult D'Anville, États formés en Europe, &c., p. 144, seqq.

5. Division of Hispania by the Romans.

I. The Romans, after having overthrown the Carthaginian power in Spain, and conquered a considerable portion of the country, divided their possessions into two provinces, distinguished by the names of *Hispania Citerior* and *Ulterior*, or Hither and Farther Spain. The former of these embraced a great part of the Mediterranean coast, together with as much of the country lying back of it, in the interior, as the Roman arms had thus far reduced; the latter comprehended very nearly what was afterward called Bætica.

II. The limits of both these provinces became gradually extended as the Roman arms advanced, but particularly Hispania Citerior, since most of the Roman conquests were made from this quarter toward the north and west. The Roman commanders of the other province were principally employed in operations against the neighboring Lusitani, and hence the

country of the latter, after their subjugation, became part of Hispania Ulterior.

III. In process of time, Hispania Citerior changed its name to Tarraconensis, from Tarraco, now Tarragona, the residence of the Roman prætor, and, consequently, the capital of the province. Its limits, also, became definitely established, and were as follows: it extended from the River Magrada, at the foot of the Pyrenees, on the upper coast, to the mouth of the River Durius, now Douro, on the Atlantic shore, comprehending all the north of Spain, together with the south as far as a line drawn from Baria, now Vera, below Carthago Nova, now Carthagena, and continued upward in an oblique direction to the vicinity of Complutica, now Compludo, above Salmantica, now Salamanca, until it struck the banks of the Durius.

IV. This was the arrangement up to the time of Augustus. That emperor, or rather Agrippa, made an alteration in it. The province of Tarraconensis, indeed, although embracing more than two thirds of the whole of Hispania, remained the same as before; but Farther Spain, or Hispania Ulterior, was now subdivided into two provinces, *Bætica* and *Lusitania*.

V. Bætica extended from Baria, where Tarraconensis terminated, to the mouth of the River Anas, or Guadiana, which river formed also its western and northern boundary. Its limit on the northeast and east was formed by a line drawn from a point on the River Anas, northeast of Sisapo, in an oblique direction to Baria. This province, therefore, comprised the modern Andalusia, a part of the Portuguese province of Alentejo, that portion of Spanish Estremadura which lies south of the Anas, and a large part of La Mancha.

VI. Lusitania was bounded on the south and west by the ocean, on the north by the River Durius, and on the east by Tarraconensis. It comprehended, therefore, modern Portugal, with the exception of the two provinces north of the Douro, namely, Entre Douro y Minho and Tras os Montes. It embraced, also, the greater part of Spanish Estremadura, Salamanca, and part of New Castile and Toledo.

VII. Independently, however, of this distinction of provinces, Spain, under the Roman government, was divided into jurisdictions called *Conventus*, that is, judicial districts or circuits, in which the Roman proconsul or governor dispensed justice.

Of these there were fourteen, each one formed of the union of several cities. This arrangement was an extremely politic one on the part of the Romans, since it tended directly to break up the nationality of the different tribes, and, of course, to confirm the Roman sway.

VIII. In the writers of the fourth and following centuries we find a new arrangement of provinces prevailing. Spain was now divided into seven of these, the names of which are as follows: 1. Batica; 2. Lusitania; 3. Callacia; 4. Tarraconensis; 5. Carthaginiensis; 6. Insula Balearica; 7. Mauritania Tingitana.

IX. This last-mentioned arrangement is commonly ascribed to the Emperor Hadrian, but it owed its origin, more probably, to Constantine. Of these seven provinces, moreover, Betica and Lusitania remained the same in size as before. Callacia, however, comprehended all the Conventus and communities north of the Durius and west of the Vascones. Carthaginiensis, again, had Carthago Nova for its capital, and answered to Murcia, a part of New Castile, and southern Valencia. And, finally, Tingitana in Africa was added, in order to equalize the provinces as much as possible.

Oss. 1. In giving Baria as the point of separation between Bætica and Tarraconensis, we have followed D'Anville. Mannert and others, however, give Murgis, now Mujakar, as the limit.

2. The Roman language, and, along with it, Roman customs, became established in a great part of the land soon after the Sertorian war; and it was this that led, of course, to the establishment of *Conventus*. These received their full development under Augustus.

6. MOUNTAINS.

The principal mountain-chains of Hispania are eight in number, namely,

1. Pyrenæi Montes.

5. Mons Solorius.

2. Mons Iduběda.

6. Mons Herminius.

3. Mons Orospēda.

7. Mons Medullus.

4. Saltus Castulonensis.

8. Mons Vindius.

I. Pyrenæi Montes, now the Pyrenees, divided Hispania from Gallia, closing the isthmus between the Mediterranean and the Oceanus Cantabricus, or Bay of Biscay. After this they continued westward, along the northern coast of the Peninsula, and sent out various branches, encumbering the north-

west corner of Hispania, or the modern provinces of Gallicia and Asturias.

The Romans were acquainted with only three main passes over these mountains. The northernmost of these ran by Fons Rapidus, the modern Fontarabia, a place situate at the mouth of the Menlascus, now the Bidassoa. The second, a more central one, led to Beneharnum, in Aquitania, now Orthés; and the third, or southernmost one, to Ruscino, in Gallia Narbonensis, now Roussillon, on the Mediterranean. At the present day there are six government roads through these mountains, the northernmost of which, and the principal one, corresponds to the Roman one running by Fons Rapidus.

Historically, these mountains are associated with the celebrated march of Hannibal, and the warfare of Cæsar against the Pompeian party in Spain. At a later period they formed the limit of the Frankish conquests under Clovis, but were passed by the ambition and power of Charlemagne, who, however, lost his rear guard among the defiles. The range of the Pyrenees is about 294 miles in length.

II. Mons Idubĕda (Ἰδούβεδα), now Sierra d'Oca, commenced among the Cantabri, near the sources of the River Iberus, in what is now Asturias and Burgos, and, running nearly parallel with the Pyrenees, terminated on the coast of the Mediterranean, near Saguntum, which place lay at its foot.

III. Mons Orospěda, or, according to Ptolemy, Ortospěda ('Ορόσπεδα, 'Ορτόσπεδα), was properly a continuation of the range of Iduběda, springing from this last near the southern termination of its course, and not far from the sources of the River Bætis, or Guadalquivir. Strabo calls a part of it the Silver Mountain ("Ορος 'Αργυροῦν), and Pliny, Saltus Tugiensis. It first ran through the Spartarius Campus in the shape of a chain of small hills, until, increasing in height, one part of it terminated in the form of a segment of a circle on what is now the coast of Murcia and Granada. The other part, divided into two arms, ran off to Bætica. One of these arms pursued nearly a western direction, and was called Mons Marianus, or Montes Ariani, now Sierra Morena, while the other ran more to the southwest, near the coast, and was called Mons Ilipula (Ἰλίπουλα), now Alpujarra, or Sierra Nevada, and ended at Calpe, or Gibraltar.

IV. Saltus Castulonensis, now Sierra de Cazorle, a branch of the Mons Marianus, taking its ancient name from the town of Castulo, on the River Bætis.

V. Mons Solorius, now Sierra de Solorio or Soloria, commencing at the sources of the River Bætis, and stretching in a southern direction. It formed in a part of its course the separation between Tarraconensis and Bætica.

VI. Mons Herminius (τὸ 'Ορος 'Ερμίνιον), now Sierra de la Estrella, south of the River Munda, or Mondego, in Lusitania, and running in a southwestern direction until it touched the coast of the Atlantic near Olisippo, or Lisbon. This chain is sometimes erroneously placed between the Tagus and the Anas, and is thus confounded with the mountains of Portalegre and Evora. It is the highest mountain range in modern Portugal. In this chain the Lusitani had their places of refuge, and it was here that they afforded so much trouble to Cæsar and his lieutenants.

VII. Mons Medullus, in Hispania Tarraeonensis, on the River Minius, or Minho. It was a continuation of the chain of Mons Vindius, and is now las Medulas.

VIII. Mons Vindius, or Vinnius, a range of mountains traversing the country of the Cantabri from east to west, now Montanos de Europa.

Obs. 1. The name of the Pyrenees is written by Strabo usually in the singular, $\Pi\nu\rho\dot{\eta}\nu\eta$. This name $\Pi\nu\rho\dot{\eta}\nu\eta$ occurs also in Herodotus (ii., 33), but it is there given to a city near which the River $\Pi\sigma\tau\rho\sigma_{\zeta}$, or Danube, has its source. Others of the Greek writers employ the plural, $\tau\dot{\alpha}$ $\Pi\nu\rho\eta\nu\alpha\dot{\alpha}a$ $\delta\rho\eta$. Among the Latin writers, Cæsar has the plural, $Pyren\alpha\dot{\alpha}$ Montes; Pliny, indifferently, the singular or plural; and Lucan has given (Pharsal., i., 689) the Greek form $Pyr\bar{\epsilon}n\bar{\epsilon}$.

2. The name of the Pyrenees was commonly supposed to be derived from the Greek term $\pi \tilde{v}p$, "fire," they having been said to have been at one time devastated by fire. The true derivation, however, is probably to be sought in the Cymric (Welsh) Brynn, or the Celtic Byrin, "a mountain," a rocky mountain," from which same source may be deduced, also, the name of Mount Brenner and Mount Ferner in the Tyrol, that of Pyern in Upper Austria, and many others. (Adelung, Mithradates, vol. ii., p. 67.) Diefenbach is in favor of an Iberian origin for the name (Celtica, i., p. 178), but it is far more probable that the appellation originated among the Celtæ in Gaul, and was brought by them into Spain.

7. PROMONTORIES.

THE ancient geographers have enumerated twenty-three promontories along the coast of Hispania; the principal ones, however, may be reduced to thirteen, as follows:

1. On the Mediterranean Coast.

I. Pyrenæum Promontorium, at the northeastern extremity of Hispania, now Cape Creux (Cabo de Creux). It was also called Pyrenæ Promontorium, and, by Strabo, $\tau \tilde{o} \tau \tilde{\eta} \varsigma$ Πυρήνης ἄκρου.

II. Dianium Promontorium, in the territory of the Contestani, and below the mouth of the River Sucro, now Cape St. Martin. It was also called Artemisium and Ferraria. The inhabitants in the vicinity term it Artemus.

III. Saturni Promontorium, near Carthago Nova, now Cape Palos.

IV. Charidemi Promontorium, southwest of Carthago Nova, in the territory of the Bastetani, now Cape Gata.

V. Calpe Mons sive Promontorium, now Gibraltar.

2. On the Atlantic Coast.

VI. Junonis Promontorium, below Gades, and near the town of Bæsippo, now Cape Trafalgar.

VII. Cuneus Promontorium, in the southern part of the Cuneus Ager, or Algarve, now Cape St. Maria (Cabo de St. Maria), forming the southernmost extremity of modern Portugal.

VIII. Sacrum Promontorium, Strabo's Ἱερὸν ἀκρωτήριον, the southwestern extremity of the Cuneus Ager, now Cape St. Vincent. It was regarded by the ancients as the most westerly point of the earth; and it was fabled to be the spot where the sun, at his setting, plunged his chariot into the sea. Hence its name of Sacred Promontory. The earliest name of this promontory appears to have been Promontorium Cepresicum.

IX. Barbarium Promontorium, below the mouth of the Tagus, now Cape Espichel.

X. Promontorium Magnum sive Olisiponense, a little to the northwest of Olisipo, or Lisbon, now Cape Roca (Cabo da Roca).

XI. Promontorium Artăbrum, called also Nerium and Celticum, in the northwestern angle of Spain, in the country of the Artabri, now Cape Finisterre (Cabo de Finisterra).

3. On the coast of the Bay of Biscay.

XII. Trileucum Promontorium, called also Coru, the northernmost point of Spain, in the territory of the Callaïci, now Cape Ortegal.

XIII. Œāso Promontorium, at the northern extremity of the

Pyrenees, now Cape Higuera (Cabo de la Higuera). Near it lay the town of the same name. Pliny calls this promontory Olarso, and Marcianus Iarso.

Obs. 1. According to the ancient writers, the Promontory of Calpe was one of the Pillars of Hercules, the other being Mount Abila, on the African shore. The name of the latter is written by Dionysius (Perieg., 336) ' $A\lambda b b a$, Alyba. Eustathius informs us (ad Dionys., p. 64) that in his time the promontory on the Spanish side was called Calpe by the barbarians, but Alyba by the Greeks; and that Abila, on the African shore, was called by the natives Abenna. At what time, however, the present Gibraltar began to be called Calpe is difficult to determine, but it was certainly long antecedent to the time of Eustathius. Calpe itself is only Alyba shortened, and pronounced with a strong Oriental aspirate. In the word Alyba we likewise detect the root of the term Alp, or rather the term itself, which may be traced directly to the Celtic radical Alb, indicating a lofty mountain.

2. A great variety of opinions were entertained among the ancients as to the spot where the Pillars of Hercules were to be sought for, and also what these Pillars actually were. Some placed them at Gades, as, for example, Pindar, who calls them Πέλας Γαδειρίδας (Nem., iii., 36); some, again, were in doubt whether they were pillars, cities, mountains, or promontories; while some made them actual statues of Hercules. Tacitus makes mention of Columns of Hercules in the north of Europe, which tradition placed somewhere in the vicinity of the Baltic. (Germ., c. 3 and 34. Compare Serv. ad Virg., En., xi., 262.) So, again, the appellations for the Columns of Hercules were various. Many of the Greek writers knew them merely by the name of Στῆλαι. (Herod., iv., 42, 181; Scylax, 1; Polyb., iii., 35; Diod. Sic., iv., 18.) The Latin writers, on the other hand, called them Herculis Columna, or Heraclea Columna, and Florus, in his florid phraseology, Herculis Speculæ (iv., 2). Dionysius styled them Tέρματα 'Ωκεανοῖο. (Compare Schwartz., Diss. de Col. Herc.: Altorf, 1749, 4to. Popowitsch, Untersuch. vom Meere, &c. Gosselin, Rech., t. iv., &c.)

8. CHIEF RIVERS.

THE chief rivers of Hispania are eight in number, namely, the *Iberus*, *Sucro*, *Bætis*, *Anas*, *Tagus*, *Munda*, *Durius*, and *Minius*.

I. Ibērus, called by the Greeks *16ηρ and *16ηρος, now the Ebro, a large, navigable river, rose in the territory of the Cantabri, not far from Juliobriga, in what is now the range of Mount Santillana, forming part of the ancient chain of Idubeda. Its whole course, including windings, is rather more than four hundred miles. According to the ancient accounts, it was navigable from Varia, now Varea, in the territory of the Verones, not far from Lograno. Modern statements, however, make it now begin to be navigable for boats at Tudela, the ancient Tutola, below Calagurris. The Iberus ran directly through Hispania Tarraconensis, in a southeastern direction,

after having first pursued a course east-southeast as far as the town of Doubriga, in the territory of the Berones; and it falls into the Mediterranean, by the Tenebrium Promontorium, in a southeast direction from Dertosa, the modern *Tortosa*. The valley of this river, lying between the great Pyrenean chain and the highlands of modern *Castile*, forms a natural division between the northern provinces of Spain and the rest of the Peninsula, and the course of the Ebro, therefore, has been often assumed as a military line in the wars of this country. Previous to the second Punic war, it formed the line of demarkation between the dominions of Carthage and those of Rome. It afterward formed the boundary between the dominions of Charlemagne and his successors and those of the Moors. The French, in their Spanish wars, have repeatedly purposed to make the Ebro the boundary between France and Spain.

II. Sucro, called by the Greek writers $\Sigma o \nu \kappa \rho \omega \nu$, now the Xucar, a river of Hispania Tarraconensis, rose in the chain of Mount Idubeda, and, separating the territories of the Contestani from those of the Edetani, flowed into the Mediterranean below Saguntum, giving name to the Sucronensis Sinus, or Gulf of Valencia. Its whole course considerably exceeds two hundred miles. At its mouth lay the town of Sucro, answering, probably, to the modern Cullera. Strabo says it could be passed on foot. The river at the present day also loses a considerable portion of its waters by the irrigation of the adjacent country. Were it not for this, it would probably be navigable for the last thirty or forty miles from its mouth.

III. Bætis, called by the Greek writers Bairus, now the Guadalquivir, the principal river of Hispania Bætica, to which it also gave name, rose in the Saltus Tugiensis, near Tugia, now Toia, in the chain of Mons Argentarius, now Sierra Segura. It ran for the most part in a southwestern direction, and entered the Atlantic near Gades. The whole course of the Bætis is given by the ancients at about three thousand stadia; according to modern authorities, the length is short of three hundred miles. From the sea to Hispălis, the modern Seville, it was navigable for large vessels; from Hispalis to Ilĭpa, the modern Penaflor, for vessels of smaller size; and from Ilĭpa to Cordůba, now Cordova, for boats. At the present day, it is first navigable for river boats below Cordova, immediately after

it is joined by the River Genil, or Xenil, the ancient Singilis, and sloops may ascend it to Seville. The banks of the river, or their immediate vicinity, are said to have been covered with numerous cities and towns. From a short distance below Hispalis, the Bætis, which has at present but one mouth, was continued anciently by two streams to the sea, embracing an island, which, in remote antiquity, was celebrated, according to some, under the name of Tartessus. Of these two arms, the lower one exists no more. The upper mouth of the river was difficult of navigation, on account of the numerous sand-banks, and also the sunken rocks; and hence a pharos, or light-house, was erected here, on the northwestern extremity of the island of Tartessus, called Cæpio's Tower, Cæpionis Turris. The modern name of this stream is corrupted from the Arabic Wâdal-l-Kebir, "the Great River."

IV. Anas, called by the Greeks "Avas, now the Guadiana (corrupted from the Arabic Wádi-Ana, "the River Ana"), rose in the territory of the Oretani, in the chain of Mount Orospeda, near the ancient Laminium, now Montiela in New Castile. The ancient accounts agree substantially with the modern. The Guadiana rises in a series of small lakes, and, after having run a few miles, disappears under ground, and continues to run under ground for more than twelve miles, when it issues from the earth as a strong stream between Villarta and Day-The place where the river reappears is called Los ojos de la Guadiana ("the eyes of the Guadiana"), and consists of several small lakes. The Anas, after this, ran in a westerly direction for a considerable distance, until, near Pax Augusta, it bent around, and flowed in a southwestern, and then southern direction, into the Atlantic, to the east of the Cuneus Promontorium. Its course exceeds four hundred and fifty miles. According to Strabo and others, it entered the sea with two mouths. It has little water, notwithstanding its length, and can only be ascended by flat-bottomed, small river-barges to Mertola in Portugal, the ancient Myrtilis, not much more than thirty miles from its mouth.

V. Tagus, in Greek Τάγος, called now Tajo by the Spaniards, and Tejo by the Portuguese, while in our own language we have adopted the Roman name, rose among the Celtiberi, between the ranges of Orospeda and Idubeda, in what is now

the Sierra Albarracin. It flowed in a direction between west and southwest through the territories of the Vettones, Carpetani, and Lusitani, into the Atlantic, a short distance above the Barbarium Promontorium, and had at its mouth Olisipo, the modern Lisbon or Lisboa. The whole course of the river exceeds five hundred and fifty miles. It is described by the ancient writers as abounding in oysters and fish, and as having auriferous sands. Grains of gold are said to be still obtained from it.

VI. Munda, now Mondego, rose in the territory of the Vettones, in Lusitania, near the town of Lancia Oppidana, now Guarda, and flowing by Conimbrīga, now Coimbra, fell into the Atlantic nearly midway between the Tagus and Durius. It was not navigable far. Pliny calls it Munda; Mela, however, Monda, and Ptolemy, also, Móvða. Strabo styles it Movluáðaç. It must not be confounded with the city of Munda, among the Bastuli Pæni, near Malaca, where Cæsar fought his desperate battle with the son of Pompey.

VII. Durius, called by Strabo Δούριος, by Ptolemy and Appian Δώριος, is now in Portuguese the Douro, in Spanish the Duero. This river, one of the principal streams of the Peninsula, rose among the Pelendones, not far from Numantia, which was situate upon it, in the range now called Sierra de Urbion, part of the ancient range of Idubeda. It ran first for a short distance to the south, then turned in a western direction until it reached the confines of Lusitania, when it again bent off to the south for some distance, when, resuming its westerly course, it flowed on to the Atlantic coast, entering the sea near Calle, the modern Oporto. The whole course of the Douro, with its numerous windings, is nearly five hundred miles. According to the ancients, it was navigable for eight hundred stadia, about ninety English miles, from its mouth, and gold was said to be found in its bed.

VIII. Minius, called in Greek Mivio, and by Strabo Baivis (Bænis), now the Minho, rose in the northern part of the territory of the Callaïci, a little distance above Lucus Augusti, the modern Lugo, in that part of the range of Mons Vinnius which answers to the modern Montañas de Asturias. It ran in a southwestern direction, receiving in its course a large tributary coming in from the east, now called the Sil, but which

the ancients appear to have regarded as the main stream, and to have confounded with the Minius itself; and it flowed into the Atlantic nearly midway between the mouth of the Durius and the Artabrum Promontorium. The course of this river, in a straight line, is about one hundred and fifteen miles, and, along the windings, one hundred and sixty miles. Though abundantly supplied with water, however, it is not navigable within modern Spain, on account of its great rapidity.

Obs. I. Various etymologies have been assigned for the ancient names of some of the principal rivers of Spain, a specimen of which may here be given: 1. The *Iberus*, in all probability, derived its name from *Iberia*, one of the early appellations of Spain, and an explanation of which may be found under § 2, Obs. 2. 2. The Batis is supposed to have been so called from the Phænician bitsi, "marshy," the tsade (ts) having been changed by the Greek and Roman writers into t. This etymology may not be incorrect, the river being swampy in some parts, especially toward its mouth, where the low and swampy islands of Menor and Mayor are formed. Hence, too, the Libystinus lacus, in this quarter, mentioned by Avienus (Or. Mar., 289), which seems to contain the same root. 3. The Anas appears to derive its name from the Phænician hanas, the explanation of which is sought to be obtained from the Arabic hanasa, "to withdraw or hide one's self," and is thought to allude to the subterranean nature of the stream in the early part of its course. 4. The Tagus is supposed to have been so called from the Phænician dag, "a fish," or dagi, "fishy," "abounding in fish," a character which the ancients expressly assign to this stream. 5. The Minius, according to Isidorus, took its name from the minium, or vermilion, which was found abundantly in the country which it traversed. On all these etymologies, consult the remarks of Bochart, Phaleg., col. 626, seqq.; col. 606.

2. According to Stephanus Byzantinus, the name given to the Bætis by the natives themselves was Perkes ($\Pi \acute{e}\rho \kappa \eta \varsigma$). Out of this Bochart makes Perka, and derives this from the Phænician berea, "stagnum," an etymology agreeing with the one given above. In Livy, the ignorant copyists have corrupted this into Certes or Certis. (Liv, xxviii, 22.)

3. In giving the source of the Sucro we have followed Mannert. The editors of the French Strabo maintain that Mannert is here in error, and that the chain in which the river rises is not that of Idubeda, but of Orospeda. Their opinion, however, is an untenable one.

9. SMALLER RIVERS.

The smaller rivers of Hispania may be enumerated as follows:

I. Of the tributaries of the Iberus, on the northern side, we may name the Gallicus, the Cinga, and the Sicoris. The Gallieus is now the Gallego, and flows into the Ebro near Saragossa. The Cinga is now the Cinca, and flowed into the Sicoris. The Sicoris is now the Segre. It flowed past Ilerda, now Lerida, and received the Cinga just before falling into the Iberus.

II. Of the tributaries of the Iberus, on the southern side, may be named the Salo, called also the Bilbilis, and running by the town of Bilbilis, in the territory of the Celtiberi. The waters of this river were famed for their property of tempering iron. The modern name is Xalon.

III. Between the Iberus and Bætis we may name, 1. The Udūba, now the Mijares; 2. The Turia, now the Guadalaviar; 3. The Satābis, falling into the Sucro near its mouth, now the Montesa; 4. The Tader, now the Segura; 5. The Mænōba, a little to the east of Malaca, now the Velez; 6. The Malāca, now the Guadalmedina; 7. The Saldūba, below Munda, now the Verda; 8. The Barbesūla, near Carteia, now the Guadiaro; 9. The Below, on the Atlantic side of the straits, at the mouth of which stood the town of Belon; now the Barbate.

IV. Between the Bætis and the Anas we may name the *Urium*, now the *Tinto*, and the *Luxia*, now the *Odiel*.

V. Between the Munda and Durius we find the Vacua, now Vouga.

VI. Among the tributaries of the Durius may be named the Astūra, now the Esla, and Arēva, now the Urcero.

VII. Between the Durius and the Minius we have the Avo, now Ave; the Celădus, now Celado; the Næbis, now Neya; and the Limia, now Lima.

VIII. We find the following flowing into the Oceanus Cantabricus: 1. The Navilubio, now Navia; 2. The Melsus, now Abono; 3. The Salia, now Sulla; 4. The Saunium, now Saja, near Portus Victoriæ; 5. The Magrada, now Uruma:

IX. Between the Iberus and the Pyrenees we have the *Tul*cis, now the *Francoli*, at Tarraco; the *Rubricatus*, now *Llo*bregat; and the *Alba*, now the *Ter*.

10. CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.

I. The *Ibēri*, before they yielded obedience to the Romans, occupied a kind of middle station between barbarism and civilization, with a preponderance, however, in favor of the former. They were equally formidable as cavalry and infantry; for, when the horse had broken the enemy's ranks, the men dismounted and fought on foot. Their dress consisted of a sagum, or coarse woollen mantle; they were greaves made of hair, an

iron helmet adorned with a red feather, a round buckler, and a broad two-edged sword, of so fine a temper as to pierce through the enemy's armor. They were moderate in eating and drinking, especially the latter; fond of decorating their persons, of dancing and song, and of robbery and war. Their habitual drink was a sort of hydromel, or mead, brought into the country by foreign traders. The land was equally distributed, and the harvests were divided among all the citizens; the law punished with death the person who appropriated more than his just share. They were hospitable—nay, they considered it a special favor to entertain a stranger. They sacrificed human victims to their divinities, and the priests pretended to read future events in their palpitating entrails. At every full moon they celebrated the festival of a god without a name, and from this circumstance their religion has been considered a corrupt deism. They were acquainted with the art of writing. The Turduli, an Iberian tribe, are said to have had among them very ancient historical records, and also written poems and laws in many thousand verses.

II. The Lusitani, a nation of freebooters, were distinguished by their activity and their patient endurance of fatigue. Their usual food was flour and sweet acorns; beer was their common beverage. They were swift in the race. They had a martial dance, which the men danced while they advanced to battle.

III. The *Turdetani* were more enlightened than any other people in Bætica, and were skilled in different kinds of industry long before their neighbors. When the Phænicians arrived on their coasts, silver was so common among them that their ordinary utensils were made of it. What was afterward done by the Spaniards in America was then done by the Phænicians in Spain: they exchanged iron and other articles of little value for silver; nay, if ancient authors can be credited, they not only loaded their ships with the same metal, but, if their anchors at any time gave way, others of silver were used in their place.

IV. The Callaïci or Gallæci, according to the ancients, had no religious notions. The Vaccæi were the least barbarous of the Celtiberians. The fierce Cantābri had a custom for two to mount on the same horse when they went to battle. The Concăni, a Cantabrian tribe, showed their ferocity by mingling the blood of horses with their drink. Among the Celtiberi, an

assembly, composed of old men, was held every year, a part of whose duty it was to examine what the women had made with their own hands within the twelvemonth, and to her, whose work the assembly thought the best, a reward was given. An ancient author mentions that corpulency was considered a reproach by the same people; for, in order to preserve their bodies light and active, the men were measured every year by a cincture of a certain breadth, and some sort of punishment was inflicted upon those who had become too large.

V. Strabo enters into some details concerning the dress of the ancient Spaniards. The Lusitani covered themselves with black mantles, because their sheep were mostly of that color. The Celtiberian women wore iron collars, with rods of the same metal rising behind and bent in front; to these rods was attached a veil, their usual ornament. Others wore a sort of broad turban, and some twisted their hair round a small ring about a foot above the head, and unto the ring was appended a black veil. Lastly, a shining forehead was considered a great beauty; and on that account they pulled out their hair, and rubbed their brows with oil.

Obs. 1. The authorities from which the above has been drawn are as follows: Strab., iii., p. 139, 158, 163, 164; Diod. Sic., v., 33, seq.; Justin., xliv., 2; Liv., xxiii., 26; xxiv., 42; xxviii., 12; Plut., Vit. Mar., 6; Val. Max., iii., 3; Hirt., Bell. Hisp., 8; Sil. Ital., i., 225; iii., 389; xvi., 471; Flor., ii., 18; Oros., v., 7; Sickler, Hand. der alt. Geogr., i., p. 14; Malte Brun, Précis de la Geogr. Univ., iv., p. 318, seqq.

2. The passage relative to the Turduli is quoted by Strabo (iii., p. 139) from Polybius, as follows: $\Sigma o \phi \dot{\omega} \tau a \tau o i$ έξετάζονται τῶν Ἰδήρων οὖτοι, καὶ γραμματικῆ χρῶνται, καὶ τῆς παλαιᾶς μνήμης έχουσι τὰ συγγράμματα, καὶ ποιήματα, καὶ νόμους ἐψιμέτρους ἑξακιςχιλίων ἑπῶν, ὡς φασι· καὶ οἱ ἄλλοι Ἰδηρες χρῶνται γραμματικῆ, οὐ μιῷ ἰδέᾳ, οὐδὲ γὰρ γλώττη ἰδίᾳ. In giving the meaning of this passage, we have adopted the emendation of Palmerius, namely, ἐπῶν for ἐτῶν. It is much to be regretted that all these curious monuments of early civilization were effaced by Roman conquests.

11. PRODUCTS.

THE products of ancient Hispania may be summed up briefly as follows:

I. Good horses, similar to those of the Parthians; mules; excellent wool.

II. Fish of different kinds, such as mackerel and tunny, salted and dried.

III. Oil, figs, wine, corn, honey, beer, flax, linen, Spanish

broom (spartum), used in the manufacture of mattresses, shoes, shepherds' cloaks, cordage, &c.; various plants used in dyeing; ship-timber.

IV. Copper, silver, gold, quicksilver, cinnabar, tin, lead, steel, &c.

Obs. The spartum, or Spanish broom, grew abundantly along the coast above Carthago Nova, and gave to this region the name of Spartarius Campus. Pliny says, that "in the part of Hispania Citerior about New Carthage, whole mountains were covered with spartum." The true Latin name was genista, the term spartum being borrowed from the Greek ($\sigma\pi\acute{a}\rho\tau$ ov), and the use of the Greek name in Hispania Citerior having been owing, probably, to the Greeian settlements on that coast from Massilia and other quarters. On the whole subject of the spartum, consult the learned and able remarks of Yates, in his Textrinum Antiquorum, p. 318, seqq.

12. MINES, &c.

I. Spain was the Peru of antiquity. She was the richest country in the ancient world for silver, and she also abounded in gold, and in the less precious metals, especially tin.

II. The mine-works of the Phænicians for the precious metals seem to have been confined to the region afterward known by the name of Bætica. According to Strabo, the oldest of these were situate on the Silver Mountain ("Ορος 'Αργυροῦν), near which the Bætis took its rise, in the southeastern angle of the country. Gold and silver were both found in Bætica; the former, it is said, exclusively, unless we except the white gold, as it was termed, that was found among the Callaïei, and that appears to have been a mixture of gold and silver, but with a decided preponderance of the latter. The Phænicians, however, opened in other parts of the Peninsula valuable mines of lead and iron, and they likewise had tin mines on the northern coast of Spain beyond Lusitania.

III. The Carthaginians, who succeeded the Phœnicians, displayed much more energy in searching for the precious as well as the more ordinary metals. The silver mines, about twenty stadia from Carthago Nova, were particularly famous. In Roman times, these works comprised a circuit of four hundred stadia, kept employed forty thousand laborers, and yielded daily twenty-five thousand drachmas' worth of metal, or about \$4400.

IV. Cinnabar was found at Sisapo, in the northeastern angle of Bætica; vermilion among the Callaïci; tin and lead among this same people, and also in the vicinity of Castulo, on the

Bætis. Iron was found nearly every where, but of a peculiarly excellent quality on the Promontorium Dianium, at the northeastern extremity of the Spartarius Campus, now Cape St. Martin.

13. HISPANIA MORE IN DETAIL.

1. LUSITANIA.

(A.) BOUNDARIES.

I. Lusitania must be considered under two aspects: 1. Its extent prior to the Roman division of Hispania into three provinces; and, 2. Its dimensions under that division.

II. Lusitania, strictly speaking, meant at first merely the territory of the Lusitani, and this territory extended only from the Durius to the Tagus, and from the coast of the Atlantic to what are now the eastern limits of the kingdom of Portugal. As, however, these Lusitani were for the most part seen, during their inroads into the more southern parts of the country, united with other tribes, which, though different in name, yet resembled them in language, manners, mode of warfare, &c., the name Lusitani became gradually extended, and applied to several of the communities dwelling south of the Tagus. This is the earlier aspect under which the name is to be regarded.

III. When, however, the Romans divided the land into the three provinces of *Tarraconensis*, *Bætica*, and *Lusitania*, the boundaries of Lusitania were as follows: On the north, the River Durius or *Douro*; on the south, the Atlantic, from the mouth of the River Anas, or *Guadiana*, to the Sacrum Promontorium, or Cape *St. Vincent*; on the west, the Atlantic; on the east, a line separating it from Tarraconensis, drawn from the Durius near Complutica, to the Anas above Sisapo; and on the southeast, the Anas to its mouth, separating it from Bætica.

IV. Lusitania, therefore, according to this latter division, comprehended, as we have before remarked, a less extent than modern Portugal from north to south, since it did not embrace the two provinces of Entre Minho y Douro and Tras os Montes, which lie to the north of the Douro; but it extended further than Portugal from west to east, since it took in also the modern Salamanca, a large part of Spanish Estremadura, and a portion of New Castile and Toledo.

(B.) ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY.

According to Strabo, the eastern part was mountainous and rugged, and not very productive. From this quarter to the sea, however, the country became gradually more level and productive, its increased fertility being principally owing to the larger and smaller rivers along the coast.

(C.) TRIBES OF LUSITANIA.

I. The *Lusitani*, dwelling between the Tagus and Durius, and reaching eastward as far as modern Portugal now extends.

II. The Turduli (Τουρδοῦλοι), called Turduli Veteres, to distinguish them from the Turduli in Bætica, came originally from this latter province, and made an expedition into Lusitania along with some Celtic bands from the vicinity of the Anas; but, having quarrelled among themselves, the Turduli settled on the southern side of the Durius, while the Celtæ passed onward to the northwestern extremity of the Peninsula. These Turduli soon became blended with the Lusitani, and hence Pliny and Mela are the only two writers who mention them separately.

III. The Vettones (Οὐέττωνες) occupied the eastern side of the province to its very frontiers, so that their territory corresponded to Salamanca and a great part of Estremadura. They appear to have been distinguished from the Lusitani only in name.

IV. The *Celtici* lay below the Tagus, and extended from the Anas to the western coast, occupying what is now the province of *Alentejo*, and the southern part of Portuguese *Estremadura*. A part of them, on the eastern side of the Anas, belonged to the territory of Bætica.

V. The Turdetani occupied the southern extremity of the land, extending into Lusitania from the country around the Bætis, where their territory commenced. It is very probable that the portion of them which dwelt to the west of the Anas were the same with the people whom ancient historians call Cunii or Conii (Kośvioi, Kóvioi). The Romans called the strip of land from the Anas to the Sacrum Promontorium by the name of Cuneus, from its resemblance to a "wedge;" but there is great reason to believe that the Roman appellation is a mere corruption, and that the true name points to settlements in this quarter on the part of the Cunii or Conii, and is, of

course, earlier than Roman times. The modern name of the Cuneus Ager is Algarve, signifying "the West," from the Arabic al, "the," and garb, "west."

OBS. Strabo, among others, alludes to the pretended Roman origin of the name Cuneus: τη Λατίνη φωνή καλούσι Κούνεον, σφήνα σημαίνειν βουλόμενοι (iii., p. 137). The arguments against this derivation are many and forcible, and show conclusively that the name existed prior to Roman times. For example, when Publius Scipio came into Spain, he learned that the force of the Carthaginians was divided into three parts, and that one portion, under Mago, was stationed beyond the Columns of Hercules, among the so-called Konii (ἐν τοῖς Κονlous. Polyb., x., 7). Now, as the Romans had not yet come into these regions, they could not, of course, be at all acquainted with the name of this people, nor have given them a Latin appellation instead of their real one. Again, Appian relates that the Lusitani, on one occasion, took Conistorgis, the great city of the Cunii (de Reb. Hisp., c. 56), and Strabo also makes mention of Conistorgis as the most celebrated city of the Celtici (iii., p. 141). Appian, moreover, frequently makes mention of the Conii. From these and similar authorities, it may very reasonably be inferred, that the Romans merely corrupted an ancient name when they called the country in this quarter Cuneus, and that the Cunii are none other than the Cynesii or Cynetes of Herodotus, already mentioned. (Vid. p. 16.)

(D.) Conventus Juridici.

THE Conventus, where all legal controversies were decided, were three in number: 1. Emeritensis, held at Augusta Emerita, now Merida; 2. Pacensis, held at Pax Julia, now Beja; and, 3. Scalabitanus, held at Scalabis, now Santarem.

(E.) CITIES OF LUSITANIA.

These may be arranged in two classes: 1. Cities between the Anas, and Tagus; and, 2. Cities between the Tagus and Durius.

1. Cities between the Anas and Tagus.

Cities on the coast.

1. Balsa, west of the mouth of the Anas, now Tavira. It appears from coins to have been a municipium. 2. Ossonoba, now Estoy, a little north of the modern Faro, where there are still numerous ruins. The promontory in this vicinity is the Cuneus Promontorium, now Cape St. Maria. 3. Portus Hannibalis, near the modern Albor, where Punic remains still exist. 4. Lacobrīga, at the commencement of the Sacrum Promontorium, or Cape St. Vincent. It is now Lagos. The termination briga, in Celtic, means "a city." 5. Merobrīga, north of the Sacrum Promontorium, near the modern St. Ia-

go de Caçem, and answering probably to Sines. 6. Cetobriga, the Cætobrix of Ptolemy, north of Merobriga, and situate near the modern Setuval. 7. We then come to the Barbarium Promontorium, now Cape Espichel, and, above this, to the mouth of the Tagus, on a bend within which stood Equabona, now Coyna, and, on the opposite or northern bank of the stream, Olisipo, now Lisbon. This place is called by Mela Ulisippo, and was fabled to have been founded by Ulysses during his pretended wanderings in the Atlantic. The name is variously written in the MSS. This place was the only municipium of Roman citizens in the whole province, and, as such, had the appellation of Felicitas Julia. The neighboring territory was remarkable for the swiftness of the horses reared in it. The Promontorium Magnum, or Olisiponense, is now Cape Roca (Cabo da Roca).

Obs. For some remarks on the endings of Celtic names of places, consult page 160, seq.

Cities in the Interior. OF THE TURDETANI.

1. Myrtilis, on the Anas, now Mertola. It was a Latin colony, and had the right of coinage. The name given to the place on its coins is Julia Myrtilis. 2. Arandi, southwest of Myrtilis, is now Ourique. The range called Mons Sacer, lying below this place and Myrtilis, gets its name from being connected with the Sacrum Promontorium, which forms its southwestern extremity. 3. Pax Julia, northwest of Myrtilis, was a Latin colony, and the seat of a Conventus. Pliny calls it Colonia Pacensis. It answers, undoubtedly, to the modern Beja. Some make it correspond to Badajoz, but this last belonged to the province of Bætica. 4. Rarapia, west of Pax Julia, is now Ferreira. 5. Salacia, an old Latin colony, with the cognomen of Urbs Imperatoria, was situate on the River Callipos, to the northwest of Rarapia. It was a municipium, and answers to the modern Alcacer do Sal. 6. Conistorgis, a large city, according to Strabo, and of which mention is also made by Appian. It may have been destroyed by the Lusitani in one of their numerous inroads, and is probably the same with the Anistorgis of Livy. The name Conistorgis evidently contains the same root with the national appellation of the Conii or Cunii. Its termination would seem to make it the name: of a Celtic city.

OF THE CELTICI.

1. Ebōra, now Evora, lay to the north of Pax Julia. It was a municipium, and is called in inscriptions Liberalitas Julia. Mela evidently errs when he places an Ebora on the Promontorium Magnum, by Olisipo. 2. Langobrīga, on the southern bank of the Tagus, not far from its mouth, in the vicinity of the modern Benavente. Metellus laid siege to it without success in the war against Sertorius. The Itinerarium Antonini makes mention of another Langobriga in the neighborhood of the Durius. 3. Medubrīca, or Medobrīga, now Marvao, in the neighborhood and to the west of the modern Portalegre. It lay northeast of Ebora. Pliny calls the inhabitants Plumbarii, probably from their lead mines. Near it was one of the mountain strong-holds of the predatory Lusitani, and which was reduced by Q. Cassius Longinus, Cæsar's lieutenant.

OF THE VETTONES AND LUSITANI.

1. Emerita Augusta, on the Anas, southeast of Medobriga, and now Merida in Estremadura. It was a Roman colony of veterans, settled by Augustus after the close of the Cantabrian war, and the seat of a Conventus, whence it was regarded as the capital of the province. The neighborhood of this place was famed for producing in abundance the coccus, or scarlet-berry, as it was thought to be, and also sweet olives. 2. Badia, to the west of Emerita, supposed to correspond to the modern Badajoz, but without any certainty. 3. Castra Cacilia, north of Emerita, now Caceres. 4. Castra Julia, or Trogilium, southeast of the former, now Truxillo. 5. Norba Cæsarea, to the northwest, on the Tagus, now Alcantara. It was a Roman colony, and was also called Norba Cæsariana, and Colonia Norbensis. 6. Moron, to the southwest, on the Tagus, made by the Romans a place of arms in their wars with the Lusitani. It answers, probably, to the modern Montalvao. 7. Oxthraca, according to Appian, the largest city of the Lusitani. Its site is unknown. 8. Scalabis, below Moron, on the northern side of the Tagus. As a Roman colony, it bore the name Præsidium Julium. It was the seat of the Conventus for all the country north of the Tagus, and is now Santarem, a name corrupted from St. Irene.

2. Cities between the Tagus and Durius.

Crossing the range of Mount Tagrus, we come to, 1. Conimbriga, now Coimbra, on the River Munda, now Mondego, and, to the north of this, 2. Lavara, as given on some maps, just below the mouth of the Vacua, now Vouga. Its existence, however, is very doubtful, and it is only another name, probably, for. 3. Talabriga, a little to the north, on the Vacua. This was one of the largest and most turbulent cities of Lusitania. Brutus took it in his march against the Callaïci. Polybius calls it Ercobriga. It occupied the site of the modern Aveiro, according to Ukert. D'Anville, however, makes it answer to the modern Torocas. 4. Langobriga, further north, near the mouth of the Durius, in the vicinity of the modern Villa Feira. 5. Augustobriga, to the southeast of Langobriga, on the western frontier of the Vettones, and nearly midway between the Durius and Tagus, near the modern Puente de Arzobispo. 6. Lancia Oppidana, a little to the southeast of Augustobriga, and near the sources of the Munda, answers, probably, to the modern Guarda. 7. Lancia Transcudana, to the east of the former, was so called because lying on the other side of the River Cuda, now Coa, a tributary of the Durius, which ran between the two places. It is supposed to correspond to the modern Ciudad Rodrigo. 8. Igadita, called also Egitania, lay below Lancia Oppidana, and now answers to Idanha la Vieja. 9. Rusticiana, to the east of the former, now Corchuela. 10. Capara, north of Rusticiana, now las Ventas de Caparra. 11. Ad Lippos, to the northeast, near the modern Calzada. 12. Salmantica, farther to the north, now Salamanca, on the River Tormes. It is the same, in all probability, with the Elmantica of Polybius, and the Hermantica of Livy. It was a large city, and from the circumstance of the Vettones being often confounded with the Lusitani, it was assigned by some of the ancient writers to the former people, by others to the latter. It was properly a city of the Vettones. Hannibal took it in his expedition against the Vaccæi.

2. BÆTICA.

(A.) BOUNDARIES.

I. By Batica originally was meant merely the strip of land on both sides of the River Bætis, between the mountain chains of Ilipula to the south, and Mons Marianus to the north. And even this strip of land was in still earlier times, according to a tradition mentioned by Strabo, known by the name of Tartessis.

II. The country also received from the Turdetani, its most powerful tribe, the name of Turdetania; but the part toward the northwest, between Mons Marianus and the Anas, had also the special appellation of Bæturia, while along the southern coast, also, the Bastuli were separately numbered. The Turduli, who are placed by Polybius to the north of the Turdetani, appear to have been merely a branch of the same race with these.

III. Augustus brought in a new arrangement, and created the province of Bætica, the boundaries and extent of which were as follows: The northwestern and western boundary of the country was formed by the River Anas, the northeastern and eastern boundary by a line drawn from the Anas above Sisapo, and striking the coast near Baria, at the mouth of what is now the *Almanzor*.

IV. Batica, therefore, according to this arrangement, comprehended the modern Andalusia, a part of the Portuguese province of Alentejo, the southern part of Spanish Estremadura, and a large portion of La Mancha.

Obs. Stephanus Byzantinus makes Bætica and Turditania synonymous: $Tovp-\delta\iota\tau a\nu (a,\,\hat{\eta}\,\,\kappa a \hat{\iota}\,\, Ba\iota\tau\iota\kappa\hat{\eta}\,\,\kappa a \hat{\iota}\,\epsilon \hat{\iota}\tau a \iota$. He adds, that Artemidorus gave to this country the name of Turtytania ($Tovp\tau v\tau a \nu (a)$), and called its inhabitants Turti ($To\tilde{v}p\tau o\iota$) and Turtutani ($Tovp\tau v\tilde{\iota}\tau a \nu (a)$). It has been supposed that the Tartessus of the Greeks is to be traced to this name of $Tovp\tau v\tau a \nu (a)$, the word having been somewhat changed in form to adapt it to Grecian ears. This would serve to throw some light on the tradition mentioned by Strabo, and referred to under § 1. (Compare the $French\ Strabo$, vol. i., p. 390, not.)

(B.) SURFACE OF THE COUNTRY.

According to Strabo and Pliny, Bætica abounded in valuable products. In the mountains, and more particularly Mons Marianus, were found gold, silver, copper, iron, cinnabar, marble, and lapis specularis. The range of Mount Ilipula yielded excellent naval timber, honey, wax, tar, &c., and contained rich pastures, where were fed sheep remarkable for the richness of

their fleeces. (Merinos?) The coasts afforded very productive fisheries, especially of the tunny, and abundance of good salt. An active traffic was hence carried on in these varied products.

(C.) TRIBES OF BÆTICA.

I. The *Turdetani* and *Turduli*, two branches of the same race, and hence commonly regarded as forming but one people. The Turduli, however, dwelt to the northeast of the Turdetani, while the latter occupied the western half of the province from the River Singilis, now the *Genil*, and a part of the chain of Mons Marianus to the River Anas. They had even, as we have already remarked, spread beyond this river.

II. The Bastuli, a mixed race, consisting of Phænician settlers blended with the old inhabitants of the land, occupied the whole coast from Junonis Promontorium, now Cape Trafalgar, to the easternmost limits of the province. Whatever Grecian colonies were settled in any part of this tract became soon forgotten, and were all merged into the common name of Bastuli, or Bastuli Pæni. The Bastuli, however, possessed nothing but the mere coast; the nearest cities in the interior belonged to the Turdetani and Turduli.

III. The Celtici.—These were a horde that had separated from the great host of the Celtæ that once crossed the Pyrenees and occupied a large part of the Peninsula. A portion of them passed into Lusitania, and settled in the vicinity of the Anas, where it begins to bend round to the south, and gradually spread themselves from this quarter to the shores of the Western Occan. The part that remained in Bætica occupied a portion of the country immediately cast of the Anas.

IV. The *Bastitani*, to the northeast of the Bastuli Pœni. They were properly one people with the Bastuli, except that they were not intermingled with Phœnician settlers. They extended into Tarraconensis, and are even assigned by some, though incorrectly it would seem, entirely to that province.

Obs. 1. We have followed D'Anville as regards the position of the Bastitani. If, however, the dividing line between Bætica and Tarraconensis be made to strike the coast at Murgis, the Bastitani will be entirely included within Tarraconensis. This appears by no means correct.

2. Appian (Hisp., c. 56) calls the Bastuli Βλαστοφοίνικες. Marcianus speaks of the Βλαστουροὶ οἱ καλουμενοι Ποινοί, and Ptolemy of the Βαστουλοὶ οἱ καλούμενοι Ποινοί. Schweighæuser proposes Βαστουλοφοίνικες (ad Appian, l. c.), but consult Ukert, Geogr. der Gr. und R., vol. ii., p. 408, n.

(D.) Conventus Jubidici.

The Conventus were four in number, namely, 1. Cordubensis, held at Corduba, now Cordova. 2. Astigiensis, held at Astĭgi, on the Singilis, now Ecija. 3. Hispalensis, at Hispălis, now Seville. 4. Gaditanus, at Gades, now Cadiz.

(E.) CITIES OF BETICA.

I. According to Strabo, Bætica contained two hundred cities. Pliny, however, makes the number one hundred and seventy-five, and Ptolemy only ninety-two.

II. The cities of Bætica may be arranged in two classes:

1. Cities on the coast, and, 2. Cities in the interior of the country.

1. Cities on the Coast.

Cities between the mouth of the Anas and the Straits of Hercules.

1. Læpa, now Lepe, by Ayamonte. 2. Onŏba, between the rivers Luxia, now Odiel, and Urius, now Tinto. Strabo places it on an estuary, having in front of it the island of Hercules. It is now Huelva, where many Roman ruins still remain. The island is now called Saltes. We then come upon a range of sand-hills, called by Pliny Arenæ Montes, now Arenas Gordas. About the middle of this tract we find Olintigi, probably Moguer. Coins are often dug up here with the inscription Olont. We then reach the Bætis, or Guadalquivir, which, as already remarked, entered the sea by two mouths, embracing between them an island, extending far inward, and having along the sea a breadth of one hundred stadia, or over eleven English miles. The island now no longer exists, the lower mouth of the river having been dried up; but where this mouth once was, the River Guadalete enters the sea. On the northwestern extremity of the island stood a pharos, or light-house, called Capionis Turris, or "Cæpio's Tower," the navigation here being rendered difficult by sand-banks and sunken rocks. In this island many place the Tartessus of antiquity, supposed to have been the same with the Tarshish of Scripture, and the island itself has been called by some Tartessus, while others make it the poetic Erythēa, connected with the legend of Gervon. We have already referred to the opinion of those who make Turdetania to have been the ancient Tartessis. Mannert's view is not much unlike this, since he makes Tartessus, or the city itself, to have been *Hispalis*, the modern *Seville*; so that the country around, occupied by the Turdetani, would then be called *Tartessis*, or the region of Tartessus.

Obs. 1. The opinion, which makes the island at the mouth of the Bætis to have been Tartessus, or, at least, to have contained the city of that name, is alluded to by Strabo, as previously quoted (iii., p. 148). Others of the ancient geographers, as, for example, Eratosthenes (ap. Strab., l. c.), sought to identify Tartessus with the city of Carteia, within the straits, near Calpe, which place Appian calls Carpessus, and regards as the ancient Tartessus. (Bell. Hisp., c. 2, 63.) This same opinion is advocated by Dionysius Pericg., v. 336, seqq. According to this view, the country around Calpe and Carteia will be Tartessis, and here, also, we are to place the poetic Erythēa. The whole matter, however, must be left in uncertainty.

2. It may not be out of place here to say a few words relative to the Tarshish of Scripture. This place is particularly mentioned in connection with the commerce of the Hebrews and Phænicians. In Genesis, x., 4, the name occurs among the sons of Javan, who are supposed to have peopled the southern parts of Europe. (Compare Ps. lxxii., 10; Isaiah, lxvi., 19.) In other passages it is mentioned as sending to Tyre silver, iron, tin, and lead (Ezekiel, xxvii., 12; Jerem., x., 9); and from Isaiah, xxiii., 10, some have inferred that it was subject to the Phænicians. The prophet Jonah, attempting to avoid his mission to Nineveh, fled from Joppa in a ship bound to Tarshish. (Jonah, i., 3; iv., 2.) In several passages of the Bible "ships of Tarshish" are spoken of, especially in connection with Tyre. From a comparison, therefore, of the above passages, the majority of critics have concluded that Tarshish must be sought in the western parts of the Mediterranean, or even outside the straits, and it has been generally identified with the Phænician emporium of Tartessus in Spain, wherever the particular site of this last may have been. They who are in favor, moreover, of an Oriental derivation for the name Tartessus, find one in the Phœnician term Tarshish, which in the Aramæan pronunciation would be Tarthesh, and would yield, of course, a striking resemblance to the Greek Ταρτησσ-ός.

1. On an estuary immediately below the island formed by the mouths of the Bætis, or, according to some maps, on the lower arm of the Bætis itself, stood Asta Regia, a Roman colony. Although some distance inland, it was still an important commercial place, and one of the most considerable cities of the province. According to Ptolemy, the territory of the Turdetani reached up to Asta, along this part of the coast, and they were accustomed to hold in this city their national assemblies. There is at the present day, near Xeres de la Frontrera, a height still called Mesa de Asta, where Roman ruins exist.

2. Gades, called by the Greeks Γάδειρα, is now Cadiz. This place lay on the west end of a small island, separated anciently from the main-land by a channel about six hundred feet wide, and at this end stood the famous Temple of Hercules. Modern

Cadiz now stands on the extremity of a low, narrow tongue of land, and is surrounded on three sides by water. The bay between Gades and the main land was called Sinus Tartessius, and the shore facing the island, Littus Corense. Gades was founded by the Phænicians many centuries before the Christian era, but there is no historical evidence as to the time of the settlement. Its Phænician name was Gadir, meaning "an inclosed place," or, according to others, "a limit," from its having been thought at the time that here were the western limits of the world. The island on which it stood was in early times covered with wild olive-trees, and hence received from the Greeks the name of Cotinousa (Κοτινοῦσα), from κότινος, "a wild olive-tree." It was also called Γάδειρα and Gades, like the city itself, and is now the isle of Leon. The tongue of land on which the modern city is built projects from this island. Gades was a famous commercial place from the earliest times, and under the Romans, also, it became, from its commerce, one of the richest provincial towns in the empire. It received from Julius Cæsar the title and rights of a Roman colony, and from Augustus the honorary appellation of Augusta Julia Gaditana. In the immediate vicinity of the larger island lay a smaller one, remarkable for its fertility and rich pastures, called Erythea, which the ancient fabulists made the scene of the legend of Gervon and his oxen. Some of the later writers called it Aphrodisias. The inhabitants themselves gave it the name of Junonis Insula. The harbor of Menestheus, which is mentioned by the ancient geographers in connection with this part of the coast, was on the main-land opposite to Gades, and at the mouth of what is now the River Guadalete. Here also was the oracle of Menestheus. The harbor is now Puerto de St. Maria. Bochart makes the name of Μενεσθέως λιμήν, or Menesthei Portus, to have arisen by corruption from the Phænician Min-Asda or Esda, "the harbor of Asda," or Asta.

Leaving this part of the coast, and moving downward, we come to Junonis Promontorium, now Cape Trafalgar. By Juno is here supposed to be meant the Phænician goddess Astarte. Next follows Bæsippo, now Porto Barbato, where Roman ruins still exist; and then Belon, on a river of the same name. From this harbor passage was taken for Tingis, on the opposite coast of Africa, now Tangier. The salting of fish

was carried on extensively at Belon. The remains of this place are found at the present day three Spanish miles west of *Tarifa*, at a spot called *Balonia*. Further on was *Mellaria*, another place where the salting of fish was carried on, now *Torre de la Penna*, where the same business is still pursued. Sertorius had a naval battle with Cotta off this place.

We now come to the extreme southern point of Spain, and begin a new enumeration of the places on the remaining portion of the coast of Bætica, with, 1. Traducta, the modern Tarifa. This place owed its origin to the Romans, who transported hither (whence the name of the settlement) the inhabitants of Zelas, a town in Africa, near Tingis, and, adding some colonists of their own to the number, gave the place the name of Julia Traducta, or Joza (this last term being the corresponding Punic one for Traducta). 2. Portus Albus, or the White Haven, now Algesiras. The promontory of Calpe follows next, the modern Gibraltar, on the ancient and present names of which we have already made some remarks. Calpe and Abyla (the latter lying opposite, in Africa) were called by the ancients the Pillars of Hercules, and the strait between them was termed Fretum Gaditanum or Herculeum, now the Straits of Gibraltar. The ancients fabled that Hercules separated with his hands the mountains of Calpe and Abyla, and that the sea, rushing in upon the Mediterranean, then a small lake, formed the present body of waters there; that the hero, moreover, either erected columns on these two mountains, or else that the mountains themselves were regarded as monuments of his progress westward, and beyond which no mortal could pass. The Straits of Gibraltar are about twelve leagues in extent from Cape Spartel to Ceuta point, on the African coast, and from Cape Trafalgar to Europa point, on the coast of Spain. Their width at the western extremity is about eight leagues, but at the eastern extremity it does not exceed five.

3. Carteia, to the northwest of Calpe, at the head of a gulf setting in between Portus Albus and Calpe. The ruins of this place exist, according to Gosselin, under the name of Rocadillo. Mariana erroneously seeks to identify Carteia with the modern Tarifa. The place was of Phænician origin, but fabled to have been built by Hercules, and hence called also Heraclea, according to some. Bochart makes the Phænician name to have been

at first Melcartheia, "City of Hercules" (thus agreeing with the Greek tradition), shortened afterward to Carteia. place was one of great trade, and was by many of the ancients regarded as the Tartessus of the Phænician navigators. error appears to have arisen from confounding the name of Carpessus with Tartessus, Carteia having been also called Carpessus, probably from the Phænician carphesa, "a shell," because shells of a very large size were found here, as Strabo informs 4. Suel, northeast of Carteia, another Phænician settlement, now Fuengirola. Bochart derives the name from the Phænician sual, "a fox," in allusion, probably, to the large number of these animals in its vicinity. 5. Malaca, above Suel, at the mouth of a river called also Malaca. This place is now Malaga, the principal sea-port in the province of Gran-The modern name of the river is the Guadalmedina, a mere brook in summer, but a considerable stream in winter. Malaca was a place of great antiquity, and claims to have been founded by the Phœnicians eight or nine centuries before our era; and the name is sought to be deduced from the Phænician malcha, "royal," to intimate the estimation in which they held the place. But of this high antiquity there is no evidence, and Humboldt says that Malaca is a pure Basque word, signifying "the side of a mountain." Malaca was the great staple-place for the sale of all commodities from the interior, as well as of foreign imports. The Romans made it a municipium and confederate city.

6. Manöba or Manāca, which some make to have been the same with Malaca, though without good reason. It is now Velez-Malaga, on the River Velez. 7. Saxetānum, famed for its salted fish, is now Motril. Probably the same place with Sexti Firmum Julium. 8. Abdēra, a Phænician settlement, now Adra. 9. Murgis, now Almeria; according to some, the eastern limit of Bætica, though this is more correctly to be fixed at Baria, now Varea, some distance above, on the coast. The Charidemum Promontorium, between Murgis and Baria is now Cape Gata.

2. Cities in the Interior.

- 1. Cities between the Anas and Bætis.
- 1. Ilipa or Ilipula, northeast of Onoba, on the River Urius,

or Tinto. It is now Niebla. 2. Italica, east of Ilipa, on the Bætis. A municipium founded by Scipio, in order to settle therein his veteran soldiers. It was the birth-place of the emperors Trajan and Hadrian. The ruins still exist at Sevilla la 3. Ilipa, or Ilipula, called, for distinction' sake from the one just mentioned, Ilipula Magna, on the Bætis, northeast of Italica, and just below the junction of the Singilis. Here Scipio obtained a victory over the Lusitani. It is now Pennaftor. 4. Corduba, higher up on the Bætis, now Cordova. It was the capital of Bætica, and a place of great trade, the river being navigable for boats up to this point. According to Strabo, the first Roman colony sent into Spain was established here by Marcellus, A.U.C. 600. The place itself, however, was of Phonician origin, having been founded under the name of Kar-Both the Senecas and also the poet Lucan were born here. It was also the seat of a Conventus, to which the greater part of the Turduli, on the north and south of the river, belonged. Finally, the place had the honor of receiving a patrician colony, a later Marcellus having transferred hither a number of poor but noble Romans, and having divided among them the property of the richer Pompeians. Hence the place was also called Colonia Patricia Cordubensis.

5. Mirobriga, north of Corduba, on the other side of Mons Marianus, and in the district of Bæturia, a mountainous country, abounding in strong positions. Mirobriga is now Capilla. 6. Sisapo Vetus, to the southeast of the preceding; and Sisapo Nova, to the northeast. Both these places were remarkable for their rich silver and cinnabar mines. They are now Almadan and Guadalcanal. In the Itinerarium Antonini, the latter is called Sisalone, an evident corruption of its true name. 7. Illiturgis, or Iliturgi, to the northeast of Corduba, now Andujar del Vejo. This was a large and important place during the first and second Punic wars. It was destroyed by the younger Africanus, but rebuilt, 197 B.C., under the name of Forum Julium. 8. Castulo, also to the northeast of Corduba, now Caslona, on the Gaudalimar, a municipium, with the Jus Latii, large of size, and situate in a very romantic country. near the silver mines of the Saltus Castulonensis. It was also called Castulo Parnassia, from the resemblance which the double-peaked mountain on which it lay, and the spring in its

vicinity, bore to Mount Parnassus and the Castalian spring in Greece, and hence Silius Italicus makes the inhabitants to have been of Phocian origin; a poetic fable, of course. Some geographers, who assign narrower limits to Bætica on the east, make the boundary line pass a little distance to the west of Castulo, and consequently assign Castulo to the province of Tarraconensis. 9. Tugia, or, according to Ptolemy, Tuia, to the southeast of Castulo. Its ruins still exist near Toya. In the vicinity of this place was the Saltus Tugiensis, now Sierra de Cazorla, where the Bætis rose.

- 2. Cities between the Bætis and the Coast.
- (a) Between the Batis and the Singilis, from West to East.
- 1. Nebrissa, situate, according to Strabo, on one of the lagunes of the Bætis, near its mouth. Called, also, Nebrissa Veneria, and now Lebrija. 2. Hispālis, on the Bætis, 500 stadia from the sea, and reached by large vessels. It was, next to Corduba and Gades, the most distinguished city of Turdetania: it was also a Roman colony, and the seat of a Conventus, and was likewise a place of great trade. Some modern writers, as, for example, Bochart and Mannert, make it to have been the ancient Tartessus, the Tarshish of Scripture. It is now Seville. 3. Basilippo, a little to the northeast of the preceding, now El Biso. 4. Astigi, called, also, Augusta Firma, on the River Singilis, the seat of a Conventus, and one of the most important cities of the province. It is now Ecija. 5. Singili, or Singilis, on the river of the same name, the remains of which are found at Castillon. 6. Munda, to the southwest, not far from Malaca, famed for the overthrow of the Carthaginians in the second Punic war, and also for the victory gained here by Cæsar, after a desperate battle, over the son of Pompey. It is now Monda. 7. Arunda, to the northwest, now Ronda, where inscriptions are found. 8. Urso, or Urson, the last refuge of the partisans of Pompey. It had the cognomen of Genua Urbanorum, and is now Osuna.

(b) Between the Singilis and the Bætis, from West to East.

1. Carbŭla, on the Bætis, at the junction of the Singilis, near the present Guadalcazar. 2. Ulia, to the southeast, a municipium; called, also, Julia, and probably the same with the

Fidentia of Hirtius. The remains are now found at Monte Ulia. 3. Illibēris, or Illiberi Liberini, to the southeast, now Granada. Hardouin and D'Anville, however, make Granada to have been of Moorish origin, and find traces of the name of Illiberi in the neighboring mountains of Sierra d'Elvira. 4. Acci, to the east, called also Colonia Accitana Julia Gemella. It had the Jus Italicum, and its site was in the vicinity of Guadix el Viejo. 5. Bastia, called, also, Mentesa Bastia, to the northeast, the chief city of the Bastitani in this quarter. The ruins are found near La Guardia. 6. Urgaon, or Urcao, with the cognomen of Alba, to the northwest. It was a municipium, and is now Arjona, as inscriptions show.

3. TARRACONENSIS.

(A.) BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. The province of *Tarraconensis* derived its name, as already remarked, from the city of *Tarraco*, now *Tarragona*, its capital; and it was by far the largest of the three provinces into which Hispania was divided by the Romans.

II. Tarraconensis, as we have already shown, comprehended all the north of Spain, together with the south as far as a line drawn from Baria, now *Varea*, below Carthago Nova, and continued upward, in an oblique direction, to a point on the Durius, in the vicinity of Complutica.

III. The climate and character of this large region was, of course, different in different quarters. That part which lay along the Mediterranean was very warm and fruitful. The northern parts, however, were unproductive, and had a raw and cold climate. A large portion of the surface in this quarter was covered with mountains and forests, while the plains were in general poorly watered, and suffered also from the cold. The winters here were very severe, and the snow fell to a great depth.

(B.) TRIBES.

- 1. Tribes of the Western and Northern Coasts, from West to East.
- I. Callaici (Καλλαϊκοί), called also, by the Latin writers, Callæci, and, at a later period, Gallæci. These formed one of the most widely extended of the Spanish tribes. They occupied the whole western coast, from the Durius upward, except the

northwestern corner, where the Artabri, a Celtic race, had fixed their seats, and possessed also the northern coast, as far as the River Melsus, the western limit of the Astures. In the interior of the country they followed the course of the Durius as far as the eastern boundary in this quarter of modern Portugal. They occupied, therefore, what are now the Portuguese provinces of Entre Duero e Minho and Tras os Montes, almost all Gallicia, a portion of Asturias, and the westernmost part of Leon.

This large tribe was divided by the Romans into two main branches, named respectively after their capital cities, the *Callaïci Bracāres* or *Bracarii*, and the *Callaïci Lucenses*. The former of these were on the west side, between the Durius and Minius; the latter, partly on the west, between the Minius and the Ulla, but principally along the northern coast. According to Pliny, the Bracares numbered among them 175,000 freemen, and the Lucenses about 166,000.

II. Celtæ.—These were situate in the northwestern corner of the territory of the Callaïci. They were generally called by the common name of Artabri, but there were, in fact, four small tribes, the Præsamarci, Nerii, Tamarici, and Artābri, or Artotrēbæ. They were a branch of the Celtæ on the Anas, and their wandering hither has already been alluded to (p. 16, § ix.).

III. Astūres (᾿Αστοῦροι and Ἦστυρες), between the Callaïci on the west, the Cantabri on the north, the Vaccæi on the south, and the Celtiberi on the east. The dividing point between their territory and that of the Callaïci Lucenses, on the coast, was formed by the mouth of the small river Melsus, now the Narcea, which stream fell into the sea a little to the west of the Aræ Sestianæ. Their country, therefore, comprehended the greater part of modern Asturias, together with a considerable portion of the kingdom of Leon. According to Pliny, the Astures numbered twenty-two communities or tribes, and 240,000 free persons. In language and habits they showed a common origin with the Callaïci and Lusitani.

IV. Cantabri, to the east of the Astures, to the west of the Autrigones, and to the north of the Vaccai and some Celtiberian tribes. They occupied what corresponds now to the western portion of La Montana, and the northern half of Palencia

and *Toro*. They were the most ferocious and warlike people of Spain, and long resisted the Roman power. Their final reduction was effected by Agrippa, in the reign of Augustus, after they had withstood the arms of Rome for more than two hundred years. The Oceanus Cantabricus, which derived its name from them, as it washed their coasts, is now the *Bay of Biscay*.

V. Caristi, or, as Pliny calls them, Carieti, to the east of the Cantabri. Their territory was very limited in extent. Pliny joins to them the Vennenses, and gives the two combined only five cities. Their territory corresponded to a part of modern Biscay.

VI. Vardŭli, still farther to the east, and extending inland from the coast to the Iberus. They occupied what is now the eastern half of Biscay, and Alava, and the westernmost part of Navarra.

VII. Vascones, southeast of the Varduli, in the modern Navarra. Mela makes no separate mention of them, but includes the Vascones and Varduli under the name of the latter.

2. Tribes in the Interior, from West to East.

I. Vaccæi (Οὐακκαῖοι), to the east of the Callaïei, and southeast of the Astures. Their eastern limit was the River Pisoraca, now Pisuerga, near which stood Palantia, now Palencia, their greatest and most important city. Toward the south they reached beyond the Durius, as far as the Carpetani. Their territory answered, therefore, to the greater part of Valladolid, Leon, Palencia, and Toro. This tribe was a very numerous one, and were the mildest and most cultivated of the Iberian communities. They paid great attention to agriculture. Ptolemy assigns them twenty cities, and Pliny names eighteen.

II. Carpetani, one of the most important of the Iberian tribes, and occupying the very centre of the Peninsula. Their territory comprehended what is now the southern part of Valladolid, the old Castilian provinces of Avila and Segovia, the largest portion of Guadalaxara, and a part of the province of Toledo. Their land was productive, and the inhabitants, like the Vaccæi, were a numerous and active race. According to some of the ancient writers, they were able to bring into the field against Hannibal more than 100,000 men.

III. Oretani, to the east of Lusitania and Bætica, especially the latter; to the north of Bætica and the country of the Bastitani; to the south of the Carpetani, and to the west of the Celtiberi. They occupied, therefore, what is now the eastern part of Granada, La Mancha, and the western part of Murcia. Strabo makes them extend to the lower coast, in which there is, after all, nothing contradictory, since they were mingled more or less with the neighboring Bastitani, from whom, in fact, they differed merely in name. It appears better, however, to follow the arrangement of Ptolemy and Pliny.

IV. Celtiberi, the most numerous and wide-spread race in all Spain. They were, as we have already remarked, a mixed people, being composed of Celtæ and Iberians. Taken in their widest extent, the Celtiberi comprehended six tribes, namely, the Berones or Verones, Arevaci, Pelendones, Lusones, Belli, and Ditthi or Titthi. The former three lay to the north, while the last three dwelt toward the south, along the range of Idubeda, as far as that of Orospeda, and they alone were sometimes, in a narrower sense, named Celtiberi. The Celtiberi were distinguished from the neighboring Iberians by a difference of language, a much ruder mode of life, by the great number of mountain strong-holds scattered over their country, by the fashion of their arms (for example, the large Celtic shield, while the Iberi had merely a small round one), and their whole mode of carrying on war. They relied more on open valor and less on stratagem than the Iberian tribes, and their wedge-like form of battle proved often formidable to the Romans themselves. Serving for hire, they were often employed as Roman auxiliaries, a means of increasing both their wealth and power, so that, soon after the second Punic war, they exercised a preponderating influence among the other Spanish communities. All their neighbors lived in some degree of dependence upon them, and this is the reason why, in many passages of ancient writers, the Vaccei and Oretani are also numbered among the Celtiberi. They did not pay much attention to agriculture. Their country answered to what is now the greatest part of New Castile, a portion of Old Castile, and some part of Arragon.

V. Jacetani, between the Vascones and Ilergetes. Their territory extended from near Cæsar-Augusta, now Saragossa,

in a northeastern direction as far as the Pyrenees, so that they occupied a part of the northeastern quarter of Arragon.

VI. Ilergētes, to the southeast, below the Cerretani, and occupying what now corresponds to a large portion of Arragon, on the left bank of the Ebro. Some of the ancient writers reckoned as part of them the smaller communities of the Bargusii, Bergistani, Vescitani, Suessitani, and Surdaones.

VII. Cerretani, north and northeast of the Ilergetes, and stretching far into the valleys of the Pyrenees; occupying, therefore, what is now the northernmost part of Catalonia. They were a pure Iberian race, and were divided into the Juliani and Augustani.

VIII. Lacetani, below the Cerretani, and occupying a part of modern Catalonia.

3. Tribes along the Southern Coast from West to East.

I. Contestani, next above the Bastetani, in what is now the eastern part of Murcia, and the western part of Valencia.

II. *Edetani*, between the Celtiberi and Ilercaones, and reaching up to the Iberus. They dwelt, therefore, in what is now the eastern and northern part of *Valencia*, and the southern part of *Arragon*, below the right bank of the *Ebro*. Their chief cities were Valencia, Saguntum, and Cæsar-Augusta.

III. *Ilercaones*, between the Edetani and the coast, and extending as far as the Iberus. Their territory is now the northeastern part of *Valencia*, and a small portion of southeastern *Arragon*.

IV. Cosetani, between the Iberus and Rubricatus, and below the Ilergetes and Lacetani. They dwelt in what is now the southern part of Catalonia.

V. Laletani, above the Rubricatus, and having the Ausetani to the north. They dwelt in what is now nearly the central part of Catalonia.

VI. Ausetani, north of the Laletani, also in part of Catalonia, particularly that around Vich and Gerona.

VII. Indigĕtes, northeast of the Ausetani. They dwelt in what is now the northeastern part of Catalonia, and also in the Pyrenees, on the borders of Gallia.

(C.) CITIES OF TARRACONENSIS.

1. Cities belonging to the Tribes along the Western and Northern Coasts.

Cities of the Callaïci Bracarii.

1. Bracara Augusta, capital of the Callaïci Bracarii, and the seat of a Conventus, now Braga; destroyed by Theodoric, king of the Visigoths. 2. Cale, called at a later period Portus Cale, to the south, at the mouth of the Durius, now Oporto. From Portus Cale came by corruption the modern name Portugal. 3. Aquæ Flaviæ, northeast of Bracara Augusta, now Chaves, on the Tamego. 4. Roborētum, to the east, the site of which is marked by Mount Roveredo. 5. Veniatia, to the east of the preceding, now Vinhaes. 6. Forum Limicorum, northwest of Bracara. Its site is indicated by ruins on Mount Viso, near the town of Ginzo. 7. Tyde or Tudæ, to the north, on the Minius, now Tuy. Pliny makes it belong to the Conventus of Bracara, although north of the Minius, and although the Bracarii extended merely up to, and not beyond that river.

Cities of the Callaïci Lucenses.

1. Lucus Augusti, capital of the Callaïci Lucenses, and the seat of a Conventus, now Lugo. It stood near the head waters of the Minius. 2. Brigantium, to the northwest, on the coast, with a lofty pharos, now Corunna. 3. Ardobrīca, near the preceding, now Ferrol. The Brigantinus vel Magnus Portus, in this quarter, seems to be the same with the Bay of Corunna and Ferrol. 4. Iria Flavia, to the southwest, now El Padron. 5. Glandomirum or Grandimirum, to the northwest, at the mouth of the Tamaris (called by Ptolemy the Tamara), now Muros, at the mouth of the Tambre. 6. Two cities occupied by Grecian settlers are also mentioned as existing in the territory of the Lucenses, namely, "Ελληνες and 'Αμφίλοχοι. They are supposed to have been situated near Aquæ Cilenæ or Cilenorum, north of Tyde.

Cities of the Astures.

1. Asturica, called, also, Augusta, the chief city of the Astures, and the seat of a Conventus. It is now Astorga. Pliny

calls it "urbs magnifica." It was destroyed by the Visigoths. 2. Forum Gigurrorum, to the west of the preceding, the chief town of the Gigurri, and now Cigarossa. Harduin, following a false reading in Ptolemy, gives the name of the place as Forum Egurrorum, and the error appears also on the maps of D'Anville and others. 3. Palantia, to the southeast of Asturica, on the River Astura, and not to be confounded with Pallantia, the city of the Vaccæi. Its ruins are near the modern Villamoros. 4. Bergidium Flavium, to the northwest of Asturica, now La Vega, on the Coa, in western Leon. 5. Interamnium Flavium, to the southeast of Bergidium, now Ponferrada, on the River Sil. 6. Nemetobriga, to the southwest, near the junction of the Sil with the Minho, now Mendaya. 7. Legio Septima Gemina, to the northeast of Asturica, now Leon. The place was originally called Brigaecium, and was the chief city of the Brigacini. From the time of Augustus, however, two legions were posted here, in order to keep the northern tribes in subjection. These two legions appear in process of time to have been united into one, whence the name Legio Septima gemina. The place, for brevity's sake, was called Legio, whence the modern appellation. 8. Lance, or Lancia, to the southeast of Legio. It was the strongest place of the still free Astures, until the Romans burned down the walls and destroyed the city. The greater part of the towns in these regions had wooden ramparts. 9. Lucus Asturum, called, also, Ovētum, to the north, toward the coast, now Oviedo. 10. Noĕga, on the coast, to the northeast of the preceding, near an estuary which formed the boundary between the Astures and Cantabri. It lay in what is now the territory of Gijon. 11. Zoelæ, not far from the ocean, famed for its flax.

Cities of the Cantabri.

Juliobriga, near the sources of the Iberus, now Retortillo.
 Uxembarca, to the northeast, now Osma.
 Vellica, or Belgica, to the west of the preceding, near the modern Villelba.
 Concăna, to the west, now Santillana, or Onis.
 Vereasueca, on the coast, now Puerto de S. Martin.
 Blendium, to the east of the preceding, now Santander.
 Portus Victoria, now Santonna.
 Strabo remarks that many of the Greek writers make various settlements of Greeks

to have been made on the northern and northwestern coasts of Spain. Opsikellas, for instance, a follower of the mythic Antenor, is said to have founded, among the Cantabri, a city named *Opsikella*. No mention of this name, however, occurs elsewhere, and no trace of such a city is any where found.

Cities of the Autrigones, Caristii, and Varduli.

1. Flaviobriga, the chief city of the Autrigones, situate on the coast. Its previous name was Amanum Portus, which it changed to Flaviobriga on becoming a Roman colony. Florez makes it answer to the modern Portugalete, but Gosselin to St. Vicente de la Barquera. Mannert is in favor of Santander. 2. Virovesca, in the interior, on a branch of the Iberus. southwest of Flaviobriga. Its site appears to be near the modern Briviesca. 3. Deobriga, or Doubriga, northeast of Virovesca, now Brinnos. 4. Belia, the only city of the Caristii deserving of mention, on a branch of the Iberus coming in from the northeast, and south of Flaviobriga. In the Itinerary it is called Beleia; and is now Belchite. 5. Alba, now Alvanna, belonging to the Conventus of Clunia, among the Arevaci. 6. Menosca, on the coast, now Sumaya. 7. Morosgi, also on the coast, now St. Sebastian. These last three are cities of the Varduli.

Cities of the Vascones.

1. Calagurris, on the Iberus, a large and beautiful city, and the capital of the Vascones. It was celebrated in the war with Sertorius, and was besieged by Pompey. It was also the native city of Quintilian. Now Calahorra. Pliny distinguishes between the Calagurritani Nassici and Fibularenses. The former of these two places appears to be the Calagorina of Ptolemy, the latter the modern Calahorra. 2. Graccurris, to the southwest. Its earlier name was Ilurcis, which it changed to Graccurris when Sempronius Gracchus, after defeating the Celtiberi, settled some new inhabitants in the place. It lay near the modern Corella. 3. Cascantum, to the northeast, near the Iberus. It was a municipium, and is now Cascante. 4. Jacca, northeast of the preceding, and now Jaca. 5. Pompēlo, to the northwest, now Pampelona. It belonged to the Conventus of Cæsar-Augusta, or Saragossa. According to

Strabo, this city was founded by Pompey (Πομπέλων ὡς ἄν Πομπηϊόπολις), a remark, however, which is, in all probability, erroneous. 6. Summum Pyrenæum, northeast of Pampelo, among the Pyrenees, now Sumport. There was another place of the same name among the Indigetes, where the trophies of Pompey were erected. 7. Œāso, on the coast, at the northern extremity of the Pyrenees, where the River Magrăda, now Urumea, runs into the sea. It was the same, probably, with the Olarso of Pliny, and it lay near the modern Oyarzun or Oyarço, in the territory of Irun and Fontarabia.

2. Cities of the Tribes in the Interior.

Cities of the Vaccai and Carpetani.

Among the Vaccei we find, 1. Pallantia, now Palencia, a large and celebrated city, often besieged by the Romans. It must not be confounded with Palantia among the Astures, on the River Astura. Strabo assigns Pallantia to the Arevaci, on whose confines it lay. 2. Lacobriga, north of the preceding, on the River Pisoraca, now the Pisuerga. It was the northernmost city of the Vaccæi, and answers to the modern Lobera. 3. Cauca, some distance below Pallantia. It contained 20,000 inhabitants, who were nearly all perfidiously murdered by the Romans after the place had surrendered. The site answers to the modern Coca. The Emperor Theodosius was born here. 4. Pintia, southwest of Pallantia, near the River Durius. It is now Valladolid. 5. Albucella, southwest of Pallantia, and between Pintia and Amallobriga. According to Polybius, it was the largest city of the Vaccæi, and was taken by Hannibal. It is named by this writer Arbucala. Now Villa Fasila. 6. Amallobriga, on the Durius, in the southwestern corner of the land, now Medina del Rioseco.

Among the Carpetani we find, 1. Tolētum, the capital city, now Toledo. It was famed for its steel articles. Between it and Hippo, to the southeast, the Romans were defeated by the Celtiberi. 2. Æbūra, or Libōra, to the southwest, called on coins Æpora and Apora, now Cuerva. 3. Contrebia, a strongly fortified city, well known in ancient history, but the site of which is altogether uncertain. It was probably destroyed in war, and seems to have answered to the modern Santaver, which would make it to have been to the northeast

of Toletum, and on the borders of the Celtiberi. 4. Consabrum, to the south of Toletum, a municipium, now Consuegra. 5. Vicus Cuminarius, northeast of Toletum, near the Tagus, and celebrated for its cumin, whence the name of the place. It is now S. Cruz de la Zarza, and is still famed for the same product. 6. Complutum, to the north of the preceding, now Alcala de Henarez. 7. Mantua, to the southwest of the preceding, now Mondejar: erroneously regarded by some as corresponding to the modern Madrid. 8. Caraca, laid down on some ancient maps as a city above Complutum, on the Tagonius. This, however, is an error, the country in this quarter being occupied by the Characitani, who had no cities, but dwelt in caves, as we are informed by Plutarch in his life of Sertorius.

Cities of the Oretani.

1. Orētum, on the Anas, called sometimes Oretum Germanorum; the northern portion of the Oretani being, according to Pliny, also named Germani. It was the chief city of the race. Stephanus calls it Orisia. Its site is marked by a spot named De Oreto, where there are ruins, and remains of a Roman bridge. 2. Laminium, to the east, near the sources of the Anas. Its site is in the vicinity of Fuenllana, between Montiel and Alcaraz. 3. Libisosia, to the east of the preceding, called, also, Forum Augusti and Colonia Libisosanorum. It was a Latin colony, and possessed the Jus Italicum. Now Lesuza, in New Castile. 4. Murus, to the northwest, now Mortales. 6. Althæa, called, also, Carteia, north of the preceding. It was the chief city of a tribe named Olcades, and was taken by Hannibal, who transported the whole tribe, along with other Iberians, to Africa, prior to his invasion of Italy, as he feared lest they might occasion disturbances in Spain during his absence. Their country was subsequently possessed by the Oretani. The site answers probably to Orgaz, in New Castile.

Cities of the Celtiberi.

1. Segobriga, nearly due west from the mouth of the Iberus, and southwest of Cæsar-Augusta. It was the capital city, and the site is to be found near the modern *Priego*. Strabo

informs us that Sertorius for a long time carried on his warfare in the region lying between this place and Bilbilis. According to Pliny, excellent lapis specularis was obtained in the
vicinity, deep pits having been dug for that purpose, traces of
which are said still to remain. 2. Ergavica, to the southwest, a Latin colony, and a large and powerful place. It lay
where the Guardiela now flows into the Tagus, and the ruins
are still extensive. 3. Bilbilis, northeast of Segobriga, on the
River Bilbilis, now the Xalon, the waters of which were famous for their property of hardening iron. The place was
celebrated for its horses, arms, iron, and gold. It was also the
native city of the poet Martial. It is now Baubola. 4. Turiäso, some distance to the south of Ergavica, on a branch of
the Sucro. The waters here were also famed for hardening
iron. Now Tarrazona.

Among the Arevaci we find, 1. Numantia, a city celebrated for its long resistance to the Roman power. It was situate on the River Durius, at no great distance from its source, and appears to have been the capital of the Arevaci, though Pliny makes it a town of the Pelendones. Numantia was situate on a steep hill of moderate size, and, according to Florus, possessed no walls, but was surrounded on three sides by very thick woods, and could only be approached on one side, which was defended by ditches and palisades. Its position has been a subject of considerable dispute; but it appears most probable that it was situate near the modern town of Soria, at a place called Puente de Don Garray. Numantia is memorable in history for the war which it carried on against the Romans for the space of fourteen years. Strabo states that the war lasted twenty years, but he appears to include in this period the war carried on by Viriathus. After the Numantines had defeated several Roman commanders, the Romans appointed Scipio Africanus, the younger, consul, B.C. 134, for the express purpose of the conquest of this city. He invested the place, and after having in vain endeavored to take it by storm, he turned the siege into a blockade, and obtained possession of the place (B.C. 133) at the end of a year and three months from the time of his first attack. The Numantines displayed the greatest courage and heroism during the whole of the siege, and when their provisions had entirely failed, they set fire to the city and perished amid

the flames. The population capable of bearing arms amounted to only 8000. 2. $Ux\Bar{a}ma$, to the southwest of the preceding, famous for its horses, now Osma. 3. Clunia, to the northwest of Uxama, a colonial city, and the seat of a Conventus. It was situate near the modern village of $Corunna\ del\ Conde$, and first grew into importance after the reduction of the Cantabri. 4. Segontia or Saguntia, to the southeast of the preceding, near the modern Siguenza.

Among the Berones or Verones we find, 1. Tritium Metallum, now Tricio. 2. Varia, to the northeast, the Verela of the Itinerary, now Varea. Here was a crossing-place or ford over the Iberus, and up to this point the river was navigable. 3. Contrebia, called, also, Leucas, on the Iberus, not far from Varia, and corresponding to the Cantabria of the Middle Ages. Its site is now marked by ruins between Lograno and Piana.

Among the Pelendones we find, 1. Termes, the same, probably, with the Termantia of Appian. It was a place of great celebrity during the war with Sertorius. The site is indicated at the present day by a spot called Ermita de nuestra Sennora de Tiermes. 2. Voluce, now Velacha. 3. Augustobrīga, now Aldea el Muro, near Soria.

Among the *Lusones* we find merely *Lutia*, said to have been 300 stadia from Numantia, and mentioned by Appian. Its site is unknown. Among the *Belli*, who are also called *Belitani*, we have *Belea* or *Beleia*, probably the modern *Belchite*. No cities of the *Titthi* are mentioned.

Cities of the Ilergetes.

1. Ilerda, on a height on the River Sieŏris, now the Segre. It was a colonial and municipal city, and is now Lerida. The place was a strong one, and is mentioned in the account given of Cæsar's movements against Afranius and Petreius, the lieutenants of Pompey. 2. Osca, to the northwest of the preceding, now Huesca. This was the place where Sertorius caused the children of the noblest parents among the different nations of Spain to be educated in Greek and Roman learning, and where they were, in reality, kept as so many hostages. It was a large and strong city. 3. Athanagia, the capital of the Ilergetes, and in the vicinity of Ilerda, now probably Agramaut. It was taken by Scipio. 4. Celsa, on the River

Iberus, to the southwest. There was here a stone bridge over the stream. It is now Xelsa. 5. Gallicum, to the southwest of Osca, on the River Gallicus, not far from its junction with the Iberus. Now Zunra, on the Gallego. 6. Forum Gallorum, to the north of the preceding, and also on the Gallicus. Now Gurrea.

3. Cities of the Tribes on the Southern and Eastern Coasts. Cities of the Contestani.

1. *Ilorci*, the same, probably, with the *Eliocroca* of the Itinerary, now Lorca, on the River Sangonera, a tributary of the Segura, the ancient Tader. 2. Carthago Nova, to the east of the preceding, on the coast, and now Cartagena. It is said to have been built by Hasdrubal Barcas, who succeeded Hamilear Barcas, the father of Hannibal, in the government of Spain, and who intended it for the metropolis of the Carthaginian possessions in this country. The situation of the place was very favorable for commerce, since it lay almost in the middle of the southern coast of Spain, which had hardly any good harbors besides this along its whole extent. It lay at the head of a bay which formed a safe and spacious harbor. city was, moreover, strongly fortified, and twenty stadia in circuit. In its neighborhood were rich silver mines, and valuable fisheries were carried on along its coasts. Here, also, were great salting establishments. It was also the great outlet for the trade of the interior. Scipio Africanus took the place during the second Punic war, and, on falling into the hands of the Romans, it became a colony under the title of Colonia Victrix Julia Nova Carthago. The governor of the province of Tarraconensis spent the winter either in this city or in Tarraco. This city was sometimes also called Carthago Spartaria, from the spartum, or Spanish broom, which grew so abundantly in its vicinity, and from which a whole tract of country here, one hundred miles in length and thirty in breadth, was called Spartarius Campus. Strictly speaking, however, the spartum was not confined to this portion of the country merely, but was found also on the mountains farther inland. The Greek name for the city was $Ka\rho\chi\eta\delta\dot{\omega}\nu$ $\dot{\eta}$ $\nu\dot{\epsilon}a$, and it was also sometimes called Καινή πόλις, or the "New City." The name, however, is, in fact, a double pleonasm, since Καρχηδών and Carthago are both corruptions from the Punic Karth-hadtha, meaning itself "the new city," in reference to Old Tyre. The place was all but destroyed by the Goths. The Scombraria Insula, off the mouth of the harbor, received its name from the scombri, or mackerel, that were caught here, and from which the garum, or pickle, was made, for which Carthago Nova was so famous. It is now La Islota, or "little island."

We then come to, 3. Alone or Alona, at the mouth of the Tader or Segura, and now, probably, Torre de Salinas. place appears to have been of Grecian origin, and to have derived its name, as Mannert thinks, from salt-works in its neighborhood (ὁ ἄλς, "salt"). 4. Ilicis, north of the preceding, now Elche. It was a colonial city, and a place of considerable trade, giving name to the Sinus Ilicitanus, a wide bay in this quarter, now the Bay of Alicante. The name of the place is also written *Illici* and *Illice*. Near this city Hamilcar is supposed to have founded the settlement called Acra Leuce, on the coast, and which is probably the same with Livy's Castrum Album, 5. Lucentum, to the northeast, now Alicante. This was also a colonial city. 6. Dianium, or Artemisium, to the northeast, above the Dianium Promontorium. This was a strong place, situate on a height, and was made by Sertorius the station for his fleet. It was celebrated, also, for its temple of Diana. The place is now Denia. 7. Lauron, to the northwest, on the coast, now Laury, and anciently famed for its wine. It was taken by Sertorius under the very eyes of Pompey, and laid in ashes. Near this place, also, Cneius Pompeius, the elder son of Pompey, was slain. 8. Aspis, inland, northwest of Ilicis, and now Aspe. 9. Setabis or Sætabis, to the northeast of the preceding, and near Lauron, called, also, on coins, Satabi Augustanorum. It was a municipal city, and famed for its flax and fine manufactures. Some assign the place to the Edetani. It is now Iativa.

Cities of the Edetani.

1. Sucro, on the river of the same name, near its mouth. It is often mentioned by historical writers, and is now, according to Ukert, Cullera. It was destroyed already in Pliny's time, who speaks of it as "quondam oppidum." 2. Valentia, north of the preceding, now Valencia. It was founded by the con-

sul Brutus, who settled here some of the soldiers of Viriathus. The city was destroyed by Pompey, but soon after repeopled. Mela speaks of it subsequently as an important place. It was the capital of the Edetani, and situate on the River Turia, now the Guadalaviar, or Rio Turia. 3. Saguntum, called, also, Saguntus, and, by the Greek writers, Σάγουντον, Ζάκυνθος, and Zάκανθα. It lay a short distance above Valentia, on a height, about 1000 paces from the sea, according to the common account. Polybius, however, says seven stadia, and Pliny 3000 This place is said to have been founded by a colony from the island of Zacynthus (now Zante), together with some Rutulians from Ardea in Italy, whence it also obtained the appellation of Graia and Ausonia. It lay on the River Pallantias, now the Palancia, in a fruitful country, and became very wealthy by both inland and foreign commerce. Saguntum was a firm and steadfast ally of the Romans, and hence was besieged and taken by Hannibal. The siege lasted eight months, and, being an infraction of the treaty between the Carthaginians and Romans, led at once to the second Punic war. Hannibal's object was to prevent the Romans retaining so important a place of arms, and so powerful an ally in a country from which he was about to depart on his march for Italy. The desperate valor of the citizens, however, who chose to perish with all their effects rather than fall into the enemy's hands. deprived the conqueror of a great part of his anticipated spoils. Still, the booty which he saved from this wreck enabled him, by his acts of liberality, to secure the affections of his army, and provide, at the same time, for the execution of his design against Italy. The ruins of Saguntum still remain at Murviedro, a corruption of Muri Veteres.

4. Edēta, the "Hôητα of Ptolemy, called, also, Liria, west of Saguntum, and now Lyria. 5. Segobrīga, on the Pallantias, to the northwest of Saguntum, and now Segorbe. Not to be confounded with Segobriga, the city of the Celtiberi, further inland, to the northwest. 5. Etobēma or Etobesa, to the northwest of the preceding, and now Oropesa. It was probably the same with the Honosca of Livy. 7. Cæsar-Augusta, to the north, on the Iberus, and at the confluence of the Gallego (the ancient Gallicus) and the Huerva. Its original name was Saldüba or Saldyva, which it changed for Cæsar-Augusta when

the Emperor Augustus colonized it with the veterans of the fourth, sixth, and tenth legions. It was a very flourishing city under the Romans, and gave name to one of the seven Conventus of Hispania Tarraconensis. The Goths took it, under their king Euric, about 470, and the Arabians in 712. The latter people corrupted the name into Saracosta, whence its present name Saragossa or Zaragoza. The ancient name Cæsar-Augusta is itself a shortened form of Cæsarea Augusta.

Cities of the Ilercaones and Cosetani.

Among the *Ilercaones* we find, 1. *Dertosa*, on the left bank of the Iberus, about thirteen English miles from the mouth, and now Tortosa. It was a Roman municipium, and the capital of the Ilercaones, and is probably the same with the Julia Ilercavonia Dertosa, called, also, Colonia Julia Augusta on coins. Pliny calls the inhabitants "celeberrimos civium Romanorum," Tortosa became a flourishing city, also, under the Moors, owing to its favorable situation for trade, being placed on a navigable river, and not far from the harbors of Fangas and Alfagues, which last still retains its Moorish name, the expression Al fakk meaning "a jaw," and "a harbor in the sea." 2. Adēba, on the right bank of the Iberus, nearer its mouth than the preceding, now Amposta. 3. Ibera, a short distance below the preceding, and situate on the coast, below the mouth of the Iberus. Livy speaks of it as existing in the time of the second Punic war, and describes it as the most important place in this quarter. Its site is uncertain. Coins have been dug up near the spot where it is commonly supposed to have stood, bearing the inscription Ilercavonia on one side, and, on the other, Hibera Julia. This place is confounded by some with Dertosa. 4. Tria Capita, called in the Itinerary Traja Capita, above the mouth of the Iberus, and on the right bank of the stream, northeast of Dertosa. Its site is unknown. 5. Carthago Vetus, not far, as Mannert thinks, from Ilerda, the modern' Lerida. Its site can not be precisely determined, but it probably answers to Carta, Vieja.

Among the *Cosetani*, the only city worth mentioning is their capital *Tarraco*, the modern *Tarragona*, one of the earliest Phænician settlements in Spain, and a place of great trade. During the second Punic war it became a Roman colony, and

had, from its favorable position, been even before this a place of arms for the Romans, from their first entrance into Spain. Under Augustus it became the capital of Hispania Citerior or Tarraconensis, and obtained, also, the additional appellation of Augusta. Its harbor was greatly enlarged by Antoninus Pius. Tarraco was also the seat of one of the seven Conventus of Hispania Citerior. It was taken by Euric, king of the Goths, in 467, and levelled with the earth. Recovering from this blow, it was again taken by the Arabs in 710, and completely destroyed, and it remained desolate until 1038, when it was rebuilt by Bernardo, archbishop of Toledo. Tarragona has many interesting Roman remains, and among them those of a splendid aqueduct, which once supplied the city with water, brought from a distance of sixteen miles, and affords proof of the importance attached to the place by the Romans. About three miles east of the city there is a very fine mausoleum, which the vulgar eall "El Sepulcro de los Scipiones" (the tomb of the Scipios), from a belief that Cneius and Publius Scipio are buried under it.

Cities of the Laletani, Ausetani, and Indigetes.

Among the Laletani we find, 1. Barcino, now Barcelona, the capital of the tribe, situate on the coast, between the River Bætŭlo, now Besos, to the east, and the Rubricatus, now Llobregat, to the west. It was a place of great trade, and was, probably, one of the colonies formed by the Greeks on the eastern coast of the peninsula. Be this, however, as it may, a town appears to have been built here by Hamilear Bareas or Barcino, about 235 B.C., who gave to it the name of his family. When the Carthaginians were expelled from Spain in 206 B.C., Barcino fell into the hands of the Romans, who made it a colony, with the additional name of Faventia. On coins and in inscriptions it is called Colonia Faventia Julia Augusta. In A.D. 411, the Gothic king Artaulphus made his triumphal entrance into it. In 718 it fell into the hands of the Mohammedans, who kept it until 801. 2. Bætŭlo, northeast of the preceding, on the coast, now Badalona. 3. Iluro, northeast of Bætulo. also on the coast, now Mataro. 4. Prætorium, northwest of Iluro. Large remains of this place still exist near La Roca. 5. Secerræ, to the northeast of the preceding, now probably St. Pere de Sercada.

Among the Ausetani we find, 1. Ausa, the chief city, on the River Alba, the modern Ter. This place now answers to Vique. 2. Gerunda, situate on a mountain, near the Alba, and to the northeast of Ausa, now Gerona. 3. Blanda, on the coast, above Prætorium, the modern Blanes.

Among the *Indigetes* we find, 1. Emporia or Emporium, a municipium and colony, planted by Julius Cæsar after his victory at Munda. It was originally a settlement of Phocæans from Massilia, and is now Ampurias. It lay, according to Mela, on the River Clodianus, now the Muga, or Llobregat Menor, and was the usual landing-place for vessels that had doubled the Promontorium Pyrenæum. The settlement was originally made on a small island, which was afterward called "the Old City," and was subsequently extended to the coast of the main-land. 2. Rhoda or Rhodos, above Emporiæ, and a colony of Rhodians, according to some, but, according to others, of Massilians. It is now Rosas. 3. Portus Veneris, at the northeastern extremity of Spain, and near the Promontorium Pyrenæum, now Port de Vendre. According to Ptolemy, there was a temple of Venus on the promontory itself. Some made this promontory mark, also, the limit between Hispania and Gallia, while others fixed that limit at the Summum Pyrenæum of the Itinerary, where stood the "Trophies of Pompey," 7à Πομπηΐου τρόπαια.

ISLANDS ADJACENT TO HISPANIA.

1. Islands in the Mediterranean.

I. Baleāres, called, also, Gymnesiæ, and now Majorca and Minorca. Both the ancient names are from the Greek, namely, Βαλλιαρεῖς (for which we have, also, Βαλεαρίδες, Βαλερίαι, &c.) and Γυμνησίαι νῆσοι.

II. The word Baleares is from the Greek $\beta \hat{a} \lambda \lambda \omega$, "to throw," the original inhabitants having been very expert in the use of the sling, to which they were trained in their infancy, and their dexterity as slingers, while serving in the Carthaginian and Roman armies, is often noticed by ancient authors. The name Gymnesiæ has a more general reference to the same skill, on the part of these islanders, in the use of missiles.

III. Strabo calls the present Majorca and Minorca by the

name of *Gymnesiæ*, while he applies the term *Pityūsæ* to two smaller islands nearer the coast of Spain; and he gives the name of Baleares to the whole group. The Pityusæ, however,

are more correctly kept distinct.

IV. The name $Pity\bar{u}s\bar{w}$ ($\Pi\iota\tau\nuo\bar{\nu}\sigma\bar{\omega}$) is also of Greek origin, meaning "Pine Islands" (from $\pi\iota\tau\nu\varsigma$, "a pine-tree"), and has reference to the thick growth of pine-trees with which the two islands, but especially the larger one, abounded. The two Pityusæ were called by the Greeks, respectively, $Eb\bar{u}sus$ and Ophiusa (snake island), which last the Romans translated into Colubraria.

V. The small island Capraria (goat island), to the south of Majorca, is the modern Cabrera.

VI. The Phoenicians, it appears, were the first settlers of the Balearic islands, which, however, had a race of original inhabitants. The Carthaginians, under Hanno, having made themselves masters of the whole group, proceeded to form new settlements, and founded the town of Mago, now Mahon, and Jamno, now Ciudadela, in the smaller one. These islands furnished them with considerable bodies of troops in their wars against Sicily and Rome, and a large force of their slingers accompanied Hannibal in his passage across the Alps.

VII. When the Carthaginians were driven from Spain, the islanders obtained their freedom, which they made use of to apply themselves to piracy, till they were subdued by the Roman consul Q. Metellus, who founded the cities of *Palma* and *Pollentia* in Majorca, and took the surname of Balearicus. They continued attached to the Roman republic as part of Hispania Citerior, and subsequently to the empire, and belonged to the

Conventus of Carthago Nova.

VIII. From the reign of Constantine the Great till that of Theodosius they had their own government. When Spain, however, fell into the hands of the Vandals and Huns, a body passed over to these islands, which became an easy conquest, and afterward, with that peninsula, were subdued by the Moors. We will now speak of the Baleares and Pityusæ more in detail.

1. Balearis Major.

The name Majorca comes from the Latin Major (Insula),

"the Larger" (island). Both Majorea and Minorea produced anciently wheat, wine, rosin, timber, &c., and mules of large size. The rabbits, however, did great injury to the crops here, as in Spain.

In Majorca we find the following cities: 1. Palma, founded by Metellus, now Palma, on the south side, lying on a spacious bay. 2. Pollentia, also founded by Metellus, on the northern side, now Pollenza. 3. Cinium, now probably Sineu, although some are in favor of Calalonga. 4. Cunici, now Alcudia. 5. Bocchörum. Site unknown. The place was in ruins as early as the time of Pliny.

2. Balearis Minor.

The name Minorca comes from the Latin Minor (Insula), "the Smaller" (island). In this island we find, 1. Jamno or Jamna, now Ciudadela. The ancient name, which is sometimes, also, written Jammona, has reference, according to Bochart, to the western situation of the place as compared with that of the parent country, being derived from the Phœnician Jamma, "the West." 2. Sanisĕra. It appears to have been situate near the middle of the island, and to answer to the modern Alajor. 3. Mago, or Magonis Portus, now Port Mahon. The place derived its name, as already remarked, from its founder, the Carthaginian Mago.

3. Pityusæ Insulæ.

These islands, as already remarked, were two in number, Ebūsus and Ophiūsa, and received their names from the numerous pine-trees that grew upon them. Ebusus is now Iviça or Ivyza. It was celebrated for its figs, which are still held in high repute. It contained, also, as it still does, very good pastures. Its capital was Ebusus or Ebusium, which has now the same modern name as the island. Bochart derives the name from the Phænician Iebuso or Ibuso, answering to the Latin "exsiccatæ," i. e., exsiccatæ ficus, "dried figs," in allusion to the fruit for which the island was anciently so famous.

The island of *Ophiusa* ('Οφιοῦσα), or "Snake Island," received its name, as already remarked, from the Greeks, in whose language ὄφις means "a snake." The modern name is *Las Columbretas*, or *Montcolibre*.

2. Islands in the Atlantic.

1. Cotinūsa, already mentioned. Another name for the island on which Gades was situated. 2. Landōbris, off the coast of Lusitania, and to the northwest of the Promontorium Olisiponense. Marcianus calls it Lanucris. It is now Berlinguas. 3. Cicæ, Aunios, and Corticata, three small islands just above the mouth of the Minius, now respectively Cies, Ons, and Salvora.

GALLIA.

1. EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.

I. The term Gallia was employed by the Romans in a double sense: 1. As indicating Gaul proper, or Gaul beyond the Alps, called Gallia simply, and also Gallia Ulterior and Gallia Transalpina; and, 2. Gaul this side of the Alps, with reference to Rome, called Gallia Cisalpina, and forming subsequently the northern part of Italy.

II. The consideration of Gallia Cisalpina belongs to the geography of Italy. We will now proceed to that of Gaul proper, or Gallia Transalpina.

III. Gaul proper, or Transalpine Gaul, comprised modern France, the Netherlands, the countries along the west bank of the Rhine, and the greatest part of Switzerland.

IV. It was bounded on the south by the Mediterranean and Hispania; on the east by the Rhine, and a line drawn from the sources of that river to the small river Varus, now the Var; or, in more general language, by the Rhine and the Alps; on the north by the Oceanus Britannicus or English Channel, and the Lower Rhine, and on the west by the Atlantic.

Obs. In speaking of the Alps as forming part of the eastern boundary, it must be borne in mind that the precise line of separation in this quarter, between Gallia and Italia, was different at different times, according to the progress of the Roman arms. Thus, for example, it differed, while the principality of Cottius existed, from what became the dividing line after the possessions of that Alpine chieftain formed part of the Roman empire. Pliny even after this assigns the Centrones, Caturiges, and Vagienni to Italy, and so, too, does Ptolemy, but they belong correctly to Gaul. The River Varus became the limit in the time of Augustus, and remained so thereafter.

2. NAMES.

I. We find the first mention of Gaul among the Greek writers, who name the country Κελτική, Celtica; but the term was at first applied by them, in a very extended sense, to the whole of western and northwestern Europe.

II. From the time of Timæus the name $\Gamma a\lambda a\tau ia$, Galatia, came into use, and at a later period the Greek writers are found employing also the term $\Gamma a\lambda\lambda ia$ (Gallia), borrowed from the Romans.

III. The Romans, on the other hand, gave the name of Gallia to the whole country between the Rhine and Pyrenees; and afterward, in order to designate the division into provinces, they employed the plural form Gallia. In order, moreover, to distinguish between Gaul proper and Upper Italy, in the latter of which countries Gallie tribes were also settled, they called the former Gallia Ulterior or Transalpina, as already remarked, and the latter Gallia Citerior or Cisalpina.

IV. Another name employed by the Romans was Gallia Comata. This was given to Gaul proper, with the exception of Gallia Narbonensis, in the south, and had reference to the custom prevalent among the inhabitants of wearing the hair long, as a badge of valor.

V. We find, also, two other appellations in use, namely, Gallia togata and Gallia braccata. The former of these was given to Gallia Cisalpina, or, as Mannert thinks, to that part of it which lay south of the Po, ealled otherwise Gallia Cispadana, and had reference to the adoption of the Roman dress and customs on the part of the inhabitants, while the name of Gallia braccata was given to the province of Narbonensis, in allusion to the bracca worn by the inhabitants; not that bracca were not also worn by the other Gauls, but because the Romans saw them for the first time worn in this quarter.

Obs. 1. To designate Gallia Transalpina, as distinguished from Cisalpina, the Greek writers use the expressions ἡ ὑπὲρ τῶν *Αλπεων Κελτική: ἡ ὑπεράλπειος Κελτική: ἡ ἐξω Κελτική, &c., while they call Gallia Cisalpina ἡ τῶν κατὰ τὴν Ἰταλίαν Κελτῶν χώρα: Κελτικὴ ἡ ἐντὸς *Αλπεων: ἡ κάτω Γαλατία. At a later period we find Ptolemy employing the term Κελτογαλατία for Gaul proper, or beyond the Alps. This last-mentioned name derives elucidation from the remark of Diodorus Siculus (v., 32), that the inhabitants of the land to the north of Massilia, and between the Pyrenees and the Alps, were called Celta (Κελτοί); those, however, farther north, extending to the ocean and the Scythians, were called Galata (Γαλάται).

2. The Romans were well acquainted with the Cisalpine Gauls in the course of the long wars which commenced with the attack upon Rome, and terminated in the subjugation of Gallia Cisalpina. They were aware of the identity of these Gauls with the $K\epsilon\lambda\tau\sigma\iota$ of the Massilians. Cæsar, moreover, in dividing the inhabitants of Gaul without the province, and as yet unconquered by the Romans, into three nations, and appropriating to one of them the name of Gal-

li, identifies this particular nation with the previously-known Gauls or Celti in Cisalpine Gaul and in the province. When he says, however, that the Romans termed them Galli, and they themselves $Celt\alpha$, his statement would probably have been more correct had he reported that by the Greeks they were termed Celti ($Ke\lambda\tau oi$), and by the Romans Galli. It does not appear clear that the Gauls ever recognized the name of $Celt\alpha$ as a national appellation. It probably grew into general use among the Greeks from some particular tribe at first so named. This may be collected from Strabo. (Prichard, Researches, vol. iii., p. 61, seq.)

3. The name Galli is evidently $Ga\bar{e}l$ Latinized. In like manner, the Greek $\Gamma a\lambda a\tau ai$ may be traced to the same root. Etymologists derive this last from Galltachd, "the land of the Gauls," but Celtic derivations begin to be looked upon with an eye of suspicion, since of the language of the people of Gaul we have now, in the opinion of the best scholars, few undoubted specimens; and although there are strong grounds for believing that it was a kindred tongue with the dialects of the British isles, yet it is evidently unsafe to have recourse, in such a case as the present, to the modern Gaelic or any of its branches. The meaning of the name $Ga\bar{e}l$, therefore, must be left uncertain, although many regard it as a contracted form of Gadhel or Gaidheal, and think that it denotes "strangers," or "foes." A summary of all the learning on this subject may be found in Diefenbach's Celtica, vol. ii., p. 6, seqq.

4. The earlier history of the Celtic people is a subject of great interest, but of difficult investigation. Were they aborigines of Gaul or of Germany? According to all the testimony of history, or, rather, of ancient tradition collected by the writers of the Roman empire, the migrations of the Gauls were always from west to east; the Celtic nations in Germany, as well as in Italy and in the East, were supposed to have been colonies from Gaul, and the Celtæ have been considered, therefore, by many, to have been the immemorial inhabitants of western Europe. But this opinion is altogether untenable. The remains of the Celtic language prove them to have been a branch of the Indo-European stock, and to have come, therefore, from the East; and as we find so many parts of Germany overspread by them in early times, whence they were afterward expelled by German tribes, a strong suspicion forces itself upon our minds that a part of the Celtic population may have always remained to the eastward of the Rhine, which perhaps received accessions from tribes of the same race returning in a later age from Gaul. (*Prichard, Researches*, vol. iii., p. 50, seq.)

5. It is impossible to determine with certainty whether the west of Europe was wholly uninhabited at the era when the Celtæ first occupied it. It is probable, however, that, as they preceded the Teutonic tribes, they must have come into contact with nations of the Finnish stock. This would especially have been the case on the shores of the Baltic, where they would have met with the Jotuns or Finns, whom the Teutonic people afterward found in possession of Scandinavia. (*Prichard, l. c.* Compare remarks on page 2 of this work.)

3. EARLY AND LATER INHABITANTS.

I. The primitive inhabitants of Gallia were probably, as already remarked, of Finnish origin, and these were reduced to subjection by the Celtæ on the great immigration of the latter race from the East.

II. At the period of Cæsar's invasion we find the Celtic race

separated into three great divisions, the *Celta*, in the centre of the country, the *Belga*, to the north, and the *Aquitani*, to the south.

III. The tribes whom Cæsar calls the *Celtæ*, and who appear to have been, in fact, the main Gallic race, or, as we may term them, the Gauls proper, occupied at this time nearly all the midland, western, and southern parts of the country, extending in one direction from the *Gobæum Promontorium*, now Cape *St. Mahé*, in *Bretagne*, to the mountains of *Switzerland* and *Savoy*, and perhaps to the frontiers of the *Tyrol*, and, in another direction, from the banks of the *Garumna*, or *Garonne*, to those of the *Sequăna* and *Matrŏna*, or *Seine* and *Marne*.:

IV. The northeastern parts of the country, from the Sequana and Matrona to the Channel and the Rhine, were occupied by the Belgæ, a race, probably, of mixed Celtic and Germanic blood, and the immediate vicinity of the Rhine was occupied by some tribes of purer and more immediate German origin. Prichard thinks, that in Cæsar's time, some of the most warlike tribes in the Belgic confederation were of the number of emigrants from Germany, who had lately taken their place among the inhabitants of Belgica, and had, perhaps, assumed the name of Belgæ. The great mass of the nation, however, were undoubtedly Gauls.

V. The southwestern corner of the country was occupied by the Aquitani, whose territory extended from the Garonne to the Pyrenees; and probably some Ligurian tribes were intermingled with the Celtæ on the shores of the Mediterranean. Some Greek settlements also occurred along that coast, and Greek blood, though in a minute proportion, has mingled in that of the modern inhabitants of Languedoc and Provence.

VI. Previously to Cæsar's conquest, the Romans had formed a prætorian province in the southern part of the country, on the coast of the Mediterranean. More particular mention of this, however, will be made under the succeeding section.

VII. The subjugation of Gaul by the Romans produced an intermixture, though probably not a great one, of Romans with the natives; but it was not until the overthrow of the vast fabric of the Roman empire, and the settlement of the northern barbaric nations within its limits, that the population of Gaul underwent any important modification. But, however little

the population might have been affected, the habits of the Celts had undergone material changes under the Roman dominion; and the modern French language shows how extensive and how permanent has been the influence of the Latin tongue.

VIII. At the breaking up of the Roman empire, three of the invading tribes possessed themselves of Gaul, namely, the Visigoths, south and west of the Loire; the Burgundians, in the southeast, extending from the Saône and the Rhone to the Jura and the Alps; and the Franks, in the north and east. A branch of the Celtic nation, moreover, migrating from the British isles, and differing in dialect and language from their kindred tribes in Gaul, settled in the extreme west, and have transmitted to the present age their peculiarity of language, and the name of the island (Bretagne or Britain) from which they came.

IX. Politically, the ascendency of the Franks extinguished the independence of their co-invaders; but the tribes which succumbed to their yoke remained in the settlements they had acquired, and have influenced more or less the characteristics of their descendants. But, notwithstanding these admixtures, the Celtæ may still be regarded as the main stock of the French people, and it has been considered that the national characters of the ancient and the modern race bear no inconsiderable resemblance to each other.

X. As the predominance of the Celtic race may be inferred from that of their adopted language in the greater part of France, so the local predominance of other tribes is indicated by that of their peculiar tongue. The Breton, an adulterated form of the language imported by the British settlers, is still the language of the rural districts and of the poorer classes in Bretagne, and is subdivided into four dialects: the Basque is yet found at the foot of the Pyrenees, and may be considered as the representative of the ancient dialect of the Aquitani: the Lampourdan, one of its principal dialects, is spoken in the Pays de Labour and in Basse Navarre. In Alsace the German language is predominant; a circumstance which may be ascribed to that province's having been more completely occupied by those tribes which overthrew the Roman empire, and which have preserved their own language, and also to the long incorporation of Alsace with Germany, and its comparatively late annexation to the rest of France.

4. HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

I. Immigration of the great Celtic race from the East, consisting of the priestly and military classes. They find the country occupied by Finnish nations, whom they reduce to vassalage, and hence arises a lower caste, deprived of all civil rights and leaked upon as more wassalage at sorfs.

rights, and looked upon as mere vassals or serfs.

II. The wants of an increasing population lead the Celtic tribes settled in Gallia to send out two vast emigrating bodies, during the reign of the elder Tarquin at Rome, about B.C. 600. One of these enters Italy, the northern part of which was subdued and peopled by them, while the other moves eastward into Germany and what is now Hungary.

III. Greek colonies settle on the Mediterranean coast of Gaul. The earliest and most important of these was Μασσαλία or Massilia (now Marseilles), founded by the people of Phocæa, itself a Greek colony of Asia Minor, B.C. 600, and augmented by the emigration of the main body of the Phocæans, when they sought refuge, B.C. 546, from the pressure of the Persian monarchy.

IV. The power or influence of Massilia extends over the neighboring districts, and several colonies are founded on the coasts of Gaul, Italy, Spain, or Corsica, such as Agatha, now Agde; Antipolis, now Antibes; Nicæa, now Nice, &c.

V. At the commencement of the second Punic war, Hannibal marches through Gaul, in his route from Spain into Italy; and Scipio, the Roman consul, who had conveyed his army by sea to Massilia, in order to intercept him, sends a small body of cavalry up the banks of the Rhodanus or *Rhone*, to reconnoitre, and these have a smart skirmish with a body of Hannibal's Numidians. Hannibal, however, marches onward into Italy, to which country Scipio also returns, sending his army forward under his brother Cnæus into Spain.

VI. After the close of the Punic wars the Romans gradually extend their power in Gaul. Fulvius Flaceus, and his successor Sextius Calvinus, conquer the Salyes, Vocontii, and some other tribes. The coast of the Mediterranean is now secured by the foundation of the Roman colony of Aquæ Sextiæ, now Aix, B.C. 122, and that portion of Transalpine Gaul which the Romans had subdued is shortly after formed into a prætorian province

(B.C. 118), of which Narbo Martius, now Narbonne, colonized the following year (B.C. 117), becomes the capital. Massilia, nominally in alliance with, but really in subjection to Rome, lies within this province.

VII. In the migratory invasion of the Cimbri, Teutones, and Ambrones, the Roman province in Gaul is for several years the seat of war. The Roman armies are repeatedly defeated. In one dreadful battle (B.C. 104) they are said to have lost 80,000 men. The province is, however, rescued from the invaders by the great victory obtained by Marius (B.C. 101) over the Teutones and Ambrones near Aquæ Sextiæ. The Cimbri have meantime marched into Italy.

VIII. The conquests of Cæsar reduced nearly the whole country between the Rhine, the Alps, the Mediterranean, the Pyrenees, and the Ocean, into subjection to Rome. The Aquitani, and the tribes inhabiting the Alps, are not subdued till afterward; the former are conquered by Messala, but some of the Alpine tribes retain their independence till the time of Nero.

IX. Under Augustus, Gaul is divided into four provinces, of which, together with other subdivisions afterward made, mention will be found under the succeeding section.

X. In the decline of the Roman power, Gaul is ravaged by the Franks, the Burgundians, and the Lygians (who had been all driven out by Probus, A.D. 277); by the Bagauds, a body of peasants, themselves Gauls, driven into rebellion (A.D. 284, 285) by the weight of their oppressions, and the distress consequent on the ravages of the barbarians, as well as the civil dissensions of the empire; again by the Franks and the Allemanni, who are repulsed by the emperors Julian (A.D. 355 to 361) and Valentinian (A.D. 365 to 375), and by the piratical Saxons who ravage the coasts. The Roman power, however, still suffices to keep these barbarians from settling in Gaul, though it can not abate the pressure on the distant frontier, and the decaying strength of the empire only protracts, but can not avert, the final catastrophe.

XI. The Franks (i. e., the Freemen), a confederacy of German nations, are found in the fourth century settled on the right bank of the Rhine, from the junction of the River Mayn to the sea, and in the latter part of this same century, and during a considerable portion of the next, appear to have been

in alliance with the empire. These Franks preserve their independence even while confederated, and each tribe has its king. Like the Saxon chieftains, who professed all to derive their lineage from Woden, the Frankish princes claimed a common ancestor Meroveus (*Meerwig*, "warrior of the sea"), from whom they bore the common title of Merovingians. The era of Meroveus is not ascertainable.

XII. Upon the downfall of the Roman empire, Gaul becomes a prey to the barbarous nations by which the empire is dismembered. There is no revival of national independence as in Britain. The nationality of the Gauls had been lost when the extension of the rights of Roman citizenship to all the natives of the provinces by Caracalla, A.D. 212, merged the distinction previously maintained between the conquerors of the world and their subjects; and the national religion, Druidism, had sunk beneath the edicts of the emperors and the growing influence of Christianity.

XIII. On the last day of the year 406 the Rhine is crossed by a host of barbarians, who never repass that frontier stream. They consist of Vandals, Alans, Suevians, Burgundians, and other nations. The Vandals, who first reach the bank, are defeated by the Franks, who defend, as the allies of the empire, the approach to the frontier; but, on the arrival of the Alans, the Franks in their turn are overcome, and the passage is effected. The devastation of Gaul by this horde of invaders is terrible; the inhabitants of many towns are slaughtered or carried into captivity, the sanctity of the churches is violated, and the open country is laid waste. Armorica (the present Bretagne), into which the settlement of the British soldiers who had followed Maximus the usurper into Gaul, had infused a military spirit, assumes and establishes its independence, but the rest of Gaul becomes a prey.

XIV. The Suevians, the Alans, and the Vandals cross the Pyrenees into Spain. The Burgundians settle, with the sanction of the Roman government, in the east of Gaul, on both sides of the Jura range, and on the west bank of the Rhine, from the Lake of Geneva to the confluence of the Rhine and the Moselle. The Visigoths, moreover, who had been long ravaging both the eastern and western empires, are induced, just before the settlement of the Burgundians (A.D. 412 to 414), to

accept the cession of that part of Gaul which lies to the south and west of the Loire. Toulouse becomes their capital. Both Burgundians and Visigoths take the name of Romans, and profess subjection, which is, however, merely nominal, to the emperor of the west. The lands in the district ceded to them are divided between the original possessors and the new comers, who give up their unsettled migratory course of life on receiving a permanent interest in the soil.

XV. Hostilities are before long renewed between the troops of the empire and these new-settled nations; but their settlement opportunely supplies Gaul with the means of defence against a fresh invasion.

XVI. In A.D. 451, Attila, king of the Huns, with an immense host of barbarians, passes the Rhine at or near the confluence of the Neckar, destroys Divodūrum or Mediomatrīci, now Metz, and Aduatŭca or Tungri, now Tongres, and lays siege to Genābum or Aureliani, now Orleans. Aëtius, the Roman general, supported by the Visigoths and the Burgundians, and numbering in his ranks Franks, Saxons, Alans, and other barbarians, advances against Attila, and obliges him to raise the siege and retire toward the frontier. At Durocatalaunum or Catalauni, now Chalons-sur-Marne, a battle is fought, in which victory is doubtful, but which is attended with a dreadful slaughter of his forces, and induces Attila to evacuate Gaul.

XVII. During these events the Franks have attracted little notice: their subdivision into tribes has weakened their power; and perhaps their fidelity to the empire restrains them from pressing it with their attacks. They retain their possessions on the right bank of the Rhine, but have obtained by concession or conquest some settlements on the left bank, or along the banks of the *Schelde* and the *Meuse*. In the invasion of Attila, some of their tribes march under the banners of Aëtius, while others attach themselves to the invading host.

XVIII. It is not until the reign of Clovis, who commences his career as king of the Salyans, one of the Frankish tribes settled at *Tournay*, about A.D. 481, that the Franks assume a commanding position. The empire of the west has now fallen, and Italy is under the government of the Ostrogoths; but a relic of the empire remains in Gaul, and the territory in

which the patricians Ægidius and his son Syagrius uphold the name of Rome is between the possessions of the Visigoths and Burgundians and the settlements of the Franks. This territory is among the early conquests of Clovis (A.D. 486). He then defeats the people of Tongres, and (in A.D. 496) subdues a portion of the Allemanns, who have made an inroad into Gaul. The conquered people recognize Clovis as their king; his opportune conversion to Christianity advances his popularity and his power in Gaul, as well as his profession of the faith in what was deemed an orthodox form, while all the other princes, who share among them the once extensive territories of the empire, are the supporters of Arianism or some other form of doctrine that is looked upon as heretical.

XIX. The sway of Clovis extends from the banks of the Lower Rhine, the cradle of his power, to the Loire, the Rhone, and the Oeean, for Armorica had submitted to him. He now determines, under the pretext of uprooting Arianism, a plea ealculated to secure him numerous supporters beyond his own confines, to attack Alarie II., king of the Visigoths, whom he defeats and slays at Vouglé, in Poitou. The Burgundians, hoping to share in the spoils of the conquered nation, support Clovis, but the Ostrogoths of Italy support the Visigoths, and prevent their entire subjection. A large part of their territory, including Bourdeaux and Toulouse, and extending, perhaps, to the foot of the Pyrenees, falls into the hands of Clovis; but the Visigoths preserve the eoast of the Mediterranean, together with Spain, which they have conquered. The Ostrogoths have Provenee, and their king Theodorie holds the sovereignty of the Visigoths, also, as guardian of their king, his grandson Amalric. The assassination of the various Frankish kings by Clovis renders him undisputed head of the tribes of his own nation, and his sovereignty extends over Gaul, with the exception of the parts retained by the Ostrogoths, Visigoths, and Burgundians. Clovis may be considered the real founder of the French monarchy. He dies A.D. 511.

5. DIVISION OF GAUL BY THE ROMANS.

I. Augustus, holding an assembly of the states of Gaul, B.C. 27, made a new division of the country, in which he paid more attention to equality in the extent of provinces than to any distinction of the several tribes that inhabited them.

II. This arrangement divided Gaul into four provinces: 1. Narbonensis; 2. Lugdunensis; 3. Belgica; 4. Aquitania.

III. The province of Aquitania comprised not only the old territory of the Aquitani, in the southwest, reaching up to the Garumna or Garonne, but also all that portion of Celtic Gaul, or the old territory of the Celtæ, comprehended between the Garumna and the Ligeris or Loire.

IV. The province of *Belgica* comprised not only the old territory of the Belgæ, but also all that portion of Celtic Gaul that lay to the east of the Arar or *Saone*, and the range of Mons Vogĕsus or *Vosge*, and extended to the Rhine.

V. The province of *Lugdunensis* comprised all that remained of Celtic Gaul, which had thus lost one half of its former extent. Its capital was Lugdunum, now *Lyons*, which gave name to it.

VI. The province of *Narbonensis* was the same with what had been before the Roman province, in the south. Its new name was derived from the city of Narbo, its capital, now *Narbonne*.

VII. Not long afterward the province of *Belgica* was dismembered by two provinces being formed out of the districts along the Rhine, to which the names of *Germania Prima* and *Germania Secunda*, or the First and Second Germany, were given; and at a subsequent period the number of provinces reached, by successive dismemberments of the larger provinces, its maximum of seventeen.

VIII. These seventeen divisions were as follows: the province of *Narbonensis* comprised five; *Aquitania*, three; *Lugdunensis*, four; and *Belgica*, five.

IX. The five subdivisions of Narbonensis were called, respectively, 1. Narbonensis Prima; 2. Narbonensis Secunda; 3. Alpes Maritima; 4. Viennensis; 5. Alpes Graiæ et Penninæ. The limits of these five provinces were as follows:

Narbonensis Prima comprehended all that portion of the old Roman province which lay between the Rhone and the Pyrenees, and answered, therefore, to the modern Languedoc and Roussillon. Its capital was Narbo, now Narbonne. Languedoc now corresponds to the departments of the Haute Loire, Ardèche, Lozère, Gard, Herault, Aude, Tarn, and Haute Garonne; and Roussillon to the department of the Pyrénées Ori-

entales. At the beginning of the fifth century, when this part of Gaul was under the sway of the Visigoths, the province of Narbonensis Prima changed its name to Septimania, and then took in, also, the adjacent part of Aquitania Secunda, lying along the Garonne; and its capital was now no longer Narbo, but Tolosa, the modern Toulouse. This name of Septimania, however, before it became a general term for the whole province, indicated merely the territory around the city of Biterræ or Bæterra, now Beziers, where the soldiers of the seventh legion (Septimani) had been settled as a military colony. Sidonius Apollinaris, and the chroniclers of the time, make frequent mention of the province of Septimania.

Narbonensis Secunda corresponded to the modern Provence, with the exception of an eastern portion lying among the Alps, and excepting, also, the cities along the Rhone, together with Massilia, now Marseilles. Its capital was Aquæ Sextiæ, now Aix. Provence now corresponds to the departments of the Bouches du Rhone, Var, and Basses Alpes.

Alpes Maritimæ comprehended the Alps on the eastern side of Provence, and in the territory of Nice, together with the easternmost portion of Dauphiné. According to the earlier division, the eastern part of this province belonged to Italy. Its capital was Ebrodunum, now Embrun. The eastern part of Dauphiné now answers to that of the departments of Isère and Hautes Alpes.

Viennensis comprehended the western part of Savoy, all Dauphiné (except the easternmost portion, which belonged to the Alpes Maritimæ), and the territories of Avenio, now Avignon, Arelate, now Arles, and Massilia, now Marseilles. Its capital was Vienna, now Vienne. Dauphiné now answers to the departments of the Hautes Alpes, Isère, and Drôme.

Alpes Graiæ et Penninæ comprehended the modern Valais, and the western part of Savoy. Its capital was Civitas Centronum, now Montiers.

X. The three subdivisions of Aquitania were called, respectively, 1. Novem Populana; 2. Aquitania Prima; 3. Aquitania Secunda. The limits of these three provinces were as follows:

Novem Populana comprehended what had previously been Aquitania in the stricter sense of the term, that is, Aquitania

before the enlargement of the province by Augustus, or the country in the southwest between the Pyrenees and Garonne. Who the nine tribes or communities were that gave name to this subdivision is not clearly known. Its capital was Civitas Ausciorum, now Auch.

Aquitania Prima comprehended the eastern half of that portion of Gallia Celtica which Augustus had added to Aquitania proper. It corresponded, therefore, to what used to be Berri, Bourbonnois, Auvergne, Rouergue, Querci, and Limousin, or the present departments of Cher, Indre, Allier, Cantal, Puy de Dome, Tarn et Garonne, Corrèze, and Haute Vienne. Its capital was Civitas Biturigum, now Bourges.

Aquitania Secunda comprehended that part of Guyenne that lay to the north of the Garonne, and also Angoumois, Poitou, Saintonge, and part of Bordelois, or a portion of the present departments of Lot, Tarn et Garonne, and Gironde, together with those of Vendée, Deux Sevres, Vienne, and Charente Inférieure. Its capital was Civitas Burdigalensium or Burdigāla, now Bourdeaux.

XI. The four subdivisions of Lugdunensis were called, respectively, 1. Lugdunensis Prima; 2. Lugdunensis Secunda; 3. Lugdunensis Tertia; 4. Lugdunensis Quarta, or Senonia. The limits of these four provinces were as follows:

Lugdunensis Prima comprehended the modern Lyonnais, Bourgogne, Nivernois, and a part of Champagne, or the present departments of the Rhone, Loire, Yonne, Côte d'Or, Saône et Loire, Ain, Nièvre, and Haute Marne. Its capital was Lugdunum, now Lyons.

Lugdunensis Secunda comprehended modern Normandie, or the present departments of Seine Inférieure, Eure, Calvados, Manche, and Orne. Its capital was Rotomägus, now Rouen.

Lugdunensis Tertia comprehended modern Touraine, Le Maine, L'Anjou, and all Bretagne, or the present departments of Indre et Loire, Sarthe, Mayenne, Loire Inférieure, Morbihan, Finisterre, Côtes du Nord, and Ile et Vilaine. Its capital was Civitas Turŏnum, now Tours.

Lugdunensis Quarta, or Senonia, which last name is derived from that of the Senŏnes, comprehended nearly all Champagne south of the Marne (the ancient Matrŏna), the southern part of the Isle de France, Chartrain, Perche, and Orle-

annais, or a part of the present departments of Marne, Seine et Marne, and Oise, together with those of Eure et Loire, Loiret, Loir et Cher, Yonne, &c. Its capital was Civitas Senonum, now Sens.

XII. The five subdivisions of Belgica were called, respectively, 1. Belgica Prima; 2. Belgica Secunda; 3. Germania Prima, or Superior; 4. Germania Secunda, or Inferior; 5. Maxima Sequanorum. The limits of these five provinces were as follows:

Belgica Prima comprehended the modern duchy of Trèves, a part of Luxembourg, and Lorraine. At the present day Lorraine answers to the departments of the Meuse, Moselle, Meurthe, and Vosges. Its capital was Civitas Treviroram, now Trèves.

Belgica Secunda comprehended the northern part of Champagne, the northern half of the Isle de France, Picardie, Artois, French Hainault, and the territory of Tournay, or the present departments of Ardennes, Seine et Oise, north of the Seine, Oise, Somme, Pas de Calais, &c. Its capital was Civitas Remorum, now Rheims.

Germania Prima comprehended all the country along the left bank of the Rhine, from the range of Mount Vocetius, an eastern arm of Jura, on the northern confines of the Helvetii, down to the confluence of the Obringa with the Rhine, near the modern Bingen. The French departments of the Haut Rhin and Bas Rhin correspond to a part of this, the remainder lying at present out of France. Its capital was Civitas Magontiacensium or Magontiacum, now Mainz or Mayence.

Germania Secunda comprehended all the country along the left bank of the Rhine, from the mouth of the Obringa to the Vahalis in length, and from the Rhine to the territory of the Nervii in breadth. It answered, therefore, to a part of the Netherlands, and to a portion, also, of the Prussian possessions west of the Rhine. Its capital was Colonia Agrippina or Agrippinensis, now Cologne. The land of the Batavi, at this period, did not any longer belong to Gaul, but was possessed by the Franks and Frisii.

Maxima Sequănorum comprehended all the country which Augustus had taken from Gallia Celtica on the east side of the Arar or Saône, and had added to Belgica. It answered, therefore,

to Franche Comté, the western half of Switzerland, and southern Alsace, or to the present departments of Haute Saône, Doubs, Jura, &c. Its capital was Civitas Vesontiensium or Besontium, now Besançon.

Obs. 1. This arrangement of provinces is taken from the *Notitia Provincia-*rum Gallia, which, in all probability, dates from the time of Dioclesian and Constantine. The division, however, must have existed at a much earlier period, since we find allusions long before this to the existence of numerous provinces in Gaul.

2. Of the seventeen provinces enumerated above, the two Germanys, the two Belgicas, and Viennensis, had consular governors; the others had præsides at their head. (*Notit. dig. Imp.*, c. 48.)

6. MOUNTAINS.

The principal mountain chains of Gallia are six in number, namely:

1. Montes Pyrenæi.

4. Mons Jura.

2. Alpes.

5. Mons Vogesus.

3. Mons Cebenna.

6. Mons (et Silva) Arduenna.

I. The Montes Pyrenæi have already been described in the account given of ancient Hispania. The whole range, as before remarked, is about two hundred and ninety-four miles in length.

II. Alpes, called by the Greek writers ai "Aλπεις, and by us the Alps, is the name of a large mountain system separating Gallia, Helvetia, and Germania from Italia. The appellation is supposed to come from a Celtic word Alb or Alp, signifying "lofty," in allusion to the superior elevation of the chain. The Alps extend from the Sinus Flanaticus, or Gulf of Carnero, at the top of the Gulf of Venice, and the sources of the River Colapis, now the Kulpe, to Vada Sabatia, now Savona, on the Gulf of Genoa. The whole extent, which is in a crescent form, is nearly six hundred British miles. It is very difficult to obtain any precise measure of the breadth of the chain. If we take the direct distance from Bellinzona, on the Italian side, to Altorf, on the Swiss side, which certainly does not comprehend the whole breadth of the Alpine mass, we find this to be about fifty miles of direct distance. From Aosta to Fribourg, across the Valley of the Rhone, the direct distance is about seventy miles; but this measurement comprehends the breadth of the main chain, and the offset which runs from St. Gothard to the Jura, with the intervening valley. East of the

Grisons the range increases considerably in breadth; from the Wurm See to a point a little north of Verona is a direct distance of one hundred and fifty miles. As the Alps belong more naturally to the geography of Italy, a more particular account of them will be given in the description of that country.

III. Mons Cebenna, commencing in the country of the Volcæ Tectosages, in the south of Gaul. This chain ran in a northeastern direction along the borders of Narbonensis, communicated by a side chain with the mountains of the Arverni to the northwest, and, continuing still its northeastern direction, finally connected itself with the range of Jura among the Sequani and Helvetii. A northern arm also connected it with Mount Vogesus. The modern name is the Cévennes. These mountains are spoken of by both Greek and Latin writers. more ordinary form of the name is Cevenna; Pliny, however, uses Gebenna; and some editors of Casar give the preference to Cevenna. The root of the name is supposed to exist in the Cymric cefn, "a mountain ridge." Strabo calls the range $\tau \delta$ Κέμμενον ὄρος, while Ptolemy uses the plural form τὰ Κέμμενα čon. Cæsar crossed these mountains in his contest with the Arverni and their confederates, under Vercingetorix. presumed difficulty of the passage had encouraged the Arverni, who deemed themselves covered from attack by these mountains as by a wall. The passage was made early in the year. and Cæsar had to open a road through snow six feet deep. The fastnesses of these mountains afforded refuge to the Huguenots in the religious wars of France.

IV. Mons Jura, extending from the Rhodanus, or Rhone, to Augusta Raurăcorum, now Augst, on the Rhine, separated Helvetia from the territory of the Sequani. The range retains its ancient name, which is said to come from the Celtic Jourag, "the domain of God, or Jupiter."

V. Mons Vogësus, or, according to some MSS. of Cæsar, Vosëgus, now Vosges (in German Vogesen or Wasgan), a chain of mountains commencing in the territory of the Lingones, and separating the Leuci from the Sequani, and the Mediomatrici from the Raurăci, Tribŏci, and Nemētes. They belong to Belgic Gaul, and for a great part of their course run nearly parallel with the Upper Rhine. Cæsar places in these mountains the sources of the Mosa, or Meuse.

VI. Mons (et Silva) Arduenna, a mountainous, or, rather, hilly and woody region in Gallia Belgica, reaching, according to Cæsar, from the Rhine and the territories of the Treveri to those of the Nervii. The heights in this tract were anciently covered with an immense forest, though Strabo says that the trees were not very lefty. The modern name for the chain is the Ardennes, though the region is more commonly called the Forest of Ardennes. The forest is much reduced in extent at the present day, but still it renders the department which bears its name one of the best wooded in France. The name is said to come from the Celtic Arden, "a forest." If such be the meaning of the term, it will account for the fact that the Roman goddess of forests, Diana, appears sometimes with the epithet Arduenna; and Montfaucon shows that a superstitious belief in this goddess existed in the Ardennes till the thirteenth century.

7. PROMONTORIES.

The principal promontories of Gallia were ten in number, namely, five along the western and northwestern coast, and five along the southern coast, as follows:

1. On the Western and Northwestern Coast.

I. Curianum Promontorium, on the coast of Aquitania, in a western direction from Burdigala, and near the town of Boii, the modern Buch. It is now Cape Feret, in Guienne, or the department of the Gironde, below which the Bay of Arcachon runs into the land.

II. Santōnum Promontorium, at the mouth of the Garumna, and just below the island of Uliārus, or Oleron. It is now Pointe d'Arvert. Gosselin, however, is in favor of Pointe de l'Aiguillon.

III. Pictonum Promontorium, to the north of the island of Uliarus. According to D'Anville, it is the modern Pointe de l'Aiguillon, at the mouth of the Sevre Niortoise. Gosselin, however, makes it Pointe de Boisvinet.

IV. Gobæum Promontorium, in the territory of the Osismii, and near Brivates Portus, or Brest. It is now Cape St. Mahé in Bretagne, department of Finisterre.

V. Itium Promontorium, near the Portus Itius, on the Fre-

tum Gallicum. It is now Cape Grisnez, between Boulogne and Calais.

2. On the Southern Coast.

I. Aphrodisium Promontorium, called, also, Pyrenæum Promontorium, and Pyrenæ Promontorium, the termination of the Pyrenees, on the Mediterranean coast. It is now Cape Creux. Strabo calls it $\tau \delta \tau \tilde{\eta} \zeta \Pi \nu \rho \tilde{\eta} \nu \eta \zeta$ "Ακρον. It derived the name Aphrodisium from the circumstance of there being upon it a temple of Venus Pyrenæa, or 'Αφροδίτη $\Pi \nu \rho \eta \nu a i a$. This promontory has already been mentioned in the account of ancient Hispania (p. 25).

II. Setium Promontorium, to the northeast of Agatha, the modern Agde. It is now Cape Cette. Strabo speaks of an island near this promontory named Blascon, which is evidently the modern Brescon.

III. Mesua Collis, described by Mela as almost entirely surrounded by the sea, and only connected with the continent by a narrow causeway or neck of land. It has been confounded by some with the Setium Promontorium, but must be looked for farther east, where the modern Mèse, though now inland, recalls apparently the ancient name.

IV. Zao Promontorium, described by Pliny as lying to the east of Massilia. According to Ukert, it is now Bec de Sormion. Others, however, are in favor of Cape de la Croisette.

V. Citharistes Promontorium, placed by Avienus to the west of Massilia, but by Ptolemy between Taurentum and Olbia. It is now probably Cape de l'Aigle.

8. CHIEF RIVERS.

The chief rivers of Gallia are eight in number, and may be divided into three classes, namely, 1. Those falling into the Sinus Aquitanicus, or the large bay between the mouth of the Garumna and the confines of Spain, and which is now regarded as part of the Bay of Biscay, though once accustomed to be called the Gulf of Gascony, and the Bay of France.

2. Those falling into the Oceanus Britannicus, Fretum Gallicum, and Oceanicus Germanicus.

3. Those falling into the Sinus Gallicus,

1. Rivers falling into the Sinus Aquitanicus.

I. Atŭris (ὁ ᾿Ατουρις), called by Lucan Aturus, and by Tibullus Atur, and now the Adour, rose in the Pyrenees, in the territory of the Bigerrōnes, flowed through the territory of the Tarbelli, and fell into the sea at Lapurdum, now Bayonne. The length of this river is about one hundred and ninety-four miles. The root of the name has been sought by some in the Cymric dūr, "water."

II. Garumna (ὁ Γαρουνᾶς), called, also, Garunna, now the Garonne, rose in the Pyrenees, in the territory of the Convěnæ, flowed through the country of the Volcæ Tectosăges, Tolosātes, Nitiobrīges, Vasātes, Civisci, and Bitŭrīges, passed by Burdigăla, or Bourdeaux, and fell into the sea at Novioregum, below the Santonum Promontorium, and now Royan. Opposite Novioregum lay the island of Antros, now probably There was a popular belief that this island rose and fell with the tide, being merely suspended, as it were, upon the waters. Mela describes the Garumna as shallow, and not well fitted for navigation, except when its waters were increased by the winter rains, or the melting of the snow in the spring. Near its mouth, however, it acquired considerable volume from the sea-water and the tides. The Garonne is now navigable to Toulouse, the ancient Tolosa, whence the Canal of Languedoc is cut to the Mediterranean. Its length is about three hundred and sixty miles. Among the tributaries of the Garumna the three following may be named as the principal ones: 1. The Tarnis, now the Tarn, rising in Mons Cebenna, among the Gabăli, in what is now the department of Lozère, and falling into the Garumna about twentytwo miles above Agennum, the modern Agen. It was remarkable for the clearness of its waters, and its sands were auriferous. 2. The Oltis, now the Lot, rising among the Gabali, and falling into the Garumna in the territory of the Nitiobriges. It receives, in the early part of its course, a tributary of its own, namely, the Triobris, now the Truyère. 3. The Duranius, now the Dordogne, rising among the Arverni, and falling into the Garumna below Burdigala. After the junction of the Dordogne, the united rivers now bear the name of the Gironde.

III. Liger (ὁ Λείγηρ), now the Loire, rose in Mons Cebenna, among the Helvii, in what is now the department of Ardèche. For about the first half of its course it flowed in a northern direction, and then, turning to the west, fell into the sea, between the Pictones and Namnetes. The whole course of the Loire is estimated at six hundred and seventy miles, of which five hundred and twelve are navigable. Among the tributaries of the Liger may be named the following: 1. The Elaver, now the Allier, rising in Mons Cebenna, and falling into the Liger near Noviodunum, the modern Nevers. By the later writers it was called Elaris and Elauris. 2. The Caris, now the Cher, rising among the Bituriges Cubi, and falling into the Liger on the southern side, near Casarodunum, or Tours. 3. The Vigenna, now the Vienne, rising among the Lemovices, and falling into the Liger a little below the junction of the Caris. 4. The Meduāna, now the Mayenne, coming in from the north, and falling into the Liger near Andecavi, now Angers, which lay on its banks a short distance above the junction.

2. Rivers falling into the Oceanus Britannicus, Fretum Gallicum, and Oceanus Germanicus.

I. Sequana (δ Σηκοάνας), now the Seine, rose in the territory of the Lingones, flowed through the country of the Senones, Parisii, Eburones, and Velocasses, and fell into the sea between the Caletes and Lexovii. The entire course of the Seine is estimated at five hundred miles, for nearly three hundred and fifty of which it is navigable. By Æthicus, a writer of the fourth century, this river is called the Geon or Geobonna. Among the tributaries of the Sequana may be mentioned the following: 1. The Autura or Audura, now the Eure, coming in from the south, and falling into the Sequana at Uggadis, now Pont de l'Arche, between Rouen and Evreux. 2. The Icauna, now the Yonne, also coming in from the south, and falling into the Sequana at Condate, the modern Montereaufault. 3. The Matrona, now the Marne, rising in the territory of the Lingones, and falling into the Sequana at Carentonium, now Charenton, a little above Lutetia, or Paris. 4. The Isara, called, also, Esia and Esia, now the Oise, which receives the Axona, now Aisne, and falls into the Sequana a short distance below Lutetia.

II. Scaldis (called by Ptolemy ὁ Ταδούδας), now the Schelde, as the Germans call it, or the Escaut, as it is termed in French. Its more usual English name is Scheldt. This river rose in the territory of the Veromandui, and fell into the Fretum Gallieum, where the Oceanus Germanicus commences, between the Nervii and Caninefates. The total length of this river is estimated at about two hundred and ten miles.

III. Mosa (ὁ Μόσας), now the Meuse, or, as the Dutch call it, the Maas, rose among the Lingones, in a part of the chain of Mons Vogesus, received the Sabis, now Sambre, at Namurcum, now Namur, and, not far from its mouth, the Vahālis, now Waal, the left or southern arm of the Rhine, and then fell into the sea at no great distance below the mouth of the Rhine. The mouth of the Mosa was called Helium Ostium, now Brihel and Helfoet. Ptolemy, however, calls this the western mouth of the Rhine, τὸ δυσμικὸν 'Ρηνοῦ ποταμοῦ στόμα.

IV. Rhenus, now the Rhine. A description of this stream will be found under the head of Germania, to which country it naturally belongs.

3. Rivers falling into the Sinus Gallicus and Mediterranean.

I. Rhodanus (ὁ 'Poδaνός), now the Rhone, rose in the Lepontine Alps, not far from the sources of the Rhine, flowed through the land of the Nantuates, Seduni, Allobroges, Helvii, Segalauni, and Vocontii, and fell into the Sinus Gallicus, or Gulf of Lyons. It was, and still is, a large and rapid river, and, in the earlier part of its course, passed through the Lacus Lemānus, or Lake of Geneva. Its whole course is about four hundred miles. In Strabo's time it was navigable some distance up; but its mouths are now so full of rocks, brought down from the mountains by its impetuous current, that no ship can enter them. The upward navigation in smaller vessels can only, on account of the rapid current, be performed by draught or steam. The Rhone at present enters the Mediterranean by four mouths. The number in former days is differently given by different writers, varying from two to seven. The discrepancy arose, probably, from the changes constantly made by the rapid current of the stream, so that a small number of mouths might be in a short time increased, and again a large number rapidly diminished. Pliny speaks of three mouths, namely, 1.

Os Hispaniense, on the side toward Spain; 2. Os Metapinum, or more probably Metinum, taking its name from the island of Metina, now Tines: 3. Os Massalioticum, the largest of the three. As far as any certainty can be arrived at, the first of these answers to the Grau d'Orgon, while the second is subdivided now into three openings, le Grand Grau, le Grau St. Anne, and le Grau de Sauzette. The term Grau, written, also, Gras, is corrupted, in all probability, from the Latin ad Gradus, the later appellation for the bay formed by the eastern mouth of the stream. In the war with the Cimbri, the mouth of the Rhone being choked up with mud and sand, it was dangerous, if not impracticable, for vessels of burden to enter. Marius, therefore, set his army to work at it, and having caused a cut to be made capable of receiving large ships, he turned a great part of the river into it, thus drawing it, says Plutarch, to a part of the coast where the opening into the sea was easy and secure. This cut was called Fossa Mariana, or, in the plural form, Fossæ Marianæ. Traces of this canal still remain, and the name Fossa is still preserved in that of the village of Foz, which stands on the spot where the canal entered the sea.

Among the tributaries of the Rhone may be mentioned the following: 1. The Arar or Araris (*Αραρ, ό), now the Saône, rose in Mons Vogesus, and fell into the Rhone at Lugdunum, now Lyons. Cæsar speaks of it as a remarkably smooth running river, and hence some derive the name from the Cymric arav, "mild," "gentle." Ammianus Marcellinus, who flourished toward the close of the fourth century, first calls the Arar by the name of Saucona, speaking of the latter as a common appellation on the part of the inhabitants in that quarter, "Ararim quem Sauconam appellant" (xv., 11). Gregory of Tours, at a later period, styles it Saugona. From this the transition to the modern name is an easy one. 2. The Dubis (Δοῦθις), now Doubs, rose in the Jura range, flowed by Vesontio or Besontium, now Besançon, and fell into the Arar. Some of the MSS. of Cæsar give the ancient name of this river as Adduabis, Alduabis, &c., but these are mere corruptions. 3. The Isara, called, also, the Isar (6 "Isap), now Isère, rose in the Alpes Graiæ, and fell into the Rhodanus above Valentia, now Valence. 4. The Druentia, now Durance, rose at the foot of the Cottian Alps, and fell into the Rhodanus a short distance below Avenio, now Avignon. 5. The Vardo, flowing to the north of Nemausus, or Nismes, and falling into the Rhodanus near Ugernum, now Beaucaire.

II. Varus, now the Var, rose in the Alpes Maritimæ, in Mons Cema, now Camelione, and fell into the Mediterranean to the west of Nicæa, or Nice. It formed the boundary, at one period, between Gallia and Italia in this quarter.

9. CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS, &c.

I. At the period when they first became known in history, the Gauls were by no means destitute of the arts of life and of social and national culture. The Celti, known to the Massilians, practiced hospitality and held public assemblies, in which they cultivated music, including bardic poetry. The states of Armorica (Normandy and Bretagne) were existing in the time of Pytheas, who termed the inhabitants honorable or respecta-The Veneti, forming part of these states, were skillful in ship-building and in maritime affairs before the intercourse between them and the Romans began. Gaul seems to have had a sort of feudal constitution, in which the influence of clanship and alliances between kindred tribes was a very prominent feature, and this system appears to have been established previously to the earliest historical accounts of the Gauls, namely, before the invasion of Italy by the Bituriges and their confederated clans.

II. No two nations were ever more contrasted in their social and political institutions than the Gauls and Germans. Among the latter, all the members of the community were freemen and warriors, wore the arms of freemen, and took their place in battle and in the deliberative assemblies of the people. The case was widely different among the Gauls. Cæsar informs us that throughout all Gaul there were two dignified orders; these were the sacerdotal order, or Druids, and the military caste. "These alone," says Cæsar, "are held in any respect; the common people are regarded nearly in the light of slaves, and undertake nothing of themselves, nor are they admitted to councils. Many, oppressed by debts, or by the exaction of excessive tributes, or the injuries of the powerful, surrender themselves into slavery under the nobles, who exercise over them the right of masters. The Druids manage all the affairs of re-

ligion, public and private sacrifices, and are the interpreters of all divine things. They are held in great respect as the instructors of youth. It is their business to settle all disputes, private and public. In controversies respecting boundaries, or succession to property, and in criminal accusations, they are judges and appoint punishments. If any person, in either a private or public capacity, refuses to submit to their decision, they interdict him from sacrifices. This is the most severe punishment. The interdicted are regarded as impious and abominable, and they are outlawed, and avoided by all. One chief Druid presides over the rest, and on his death a successor is appointed by election. The Druids, at a certain time of the year, hold a sitting in a consecrated place within the territory of the Carnutes, which is considered the centre of Gaul. To this assembly a final appeal is made in all controversies."

III. Strabo gives a somewhat different account of the dignified orders among the Gauls. He says that there are three classes of men held in great esteem among them, the Bards, the Ouates (Vates), and the Druids: the Bards, he adds, are singers and poets; the Ouates perform sacred rites and study the doctrine of nature; and the Druids, in addition to natural philosophy (φυσιολογία), devote themselves also to the study of ethics. It seems that these three classes, mentioned by Strabo, come under the Druidical order of Cæsar, otherwise two are omitted by that writer. Ammianus Marcellinus mentions the same three orders of Strabo under the names of Bardi, Euhages, and Druida. The Bards are mentioned also by Festus: "Bardus Gallice cantor appellatur, qui virorum fortium laudes canit." The same description and epithet were given to them by Posidonius in a passage preserved by Athenæus, and cited from the latter writer by Casaubon in his commentary on Strabo.

IV. We learn from Strabo that women sometimes took part in the performances of the Druids, and that in an island near the mouth of the Loire, ceremonies were performed similar to those of Ceres and Proserpina. Vopiscus declares, from the testimony of contemporary writers, that British Druidesses predicted the death of Dioclesian. He also relates that Aurelian consulted Gaulish Druidesses. In the life of Numerian, he says, that Dioclesian first conceived the hopes of his future greatness from the prediction of a Gaulish Druidess.

V. The several states of Gaul were aristocratical republics. In these it was customary to elect a prince or chief governor annually, and a general was likewise appointed by the multitude to take the command in war. Strabo says that they had one peculiar custom in their assemblies. If any person present made a noise and disturbed the speaker, an officer was sent to him with a drawn sword, who at first, by threats, endeavored to enforce silence, and if not obeyed, cut off a part of the cloak of the offender, of sufficiently large size to render what remained completely useless.

VI. Boldness, levity, and fickleness, a want of firmness and self-command, are by the ancient writers universally ascribed to the Gauls as their prominent characteristics. Strabo describes them in rather a favorable point of view. He says that "the Gauls in general are irascible, and always ready to fight, but otherwise honest and good natured. When irritated, they speedily hasten in crowds to arms, and that openly and without circumspection, so that they are easily circumvented and defeated by stratagem, for at all times and places it is easy to provoke them to engage in quarrels, to which they bring no other resources than violence and boldness. They are likewise easily persuaded to a good purpose, and are ready for instruction and intellectual culture. They are all naturally fond of war; they fight better on horseback than on foot; the further they live toward the north and the ocean, the more warlike they are. The Belgæ are said to be the most valiant of Among the Belgæ, the Bellöväci are the bravest, and next to them the Suessiones."

VII. All the ancient writers ascribe to the Gauls the greatest degree of unchastity and impurity in their manners. Diodorus Siculus, Athenæus, and other writers have preserved accounts of them, which indicate that they lived in a way which betokened an almost total absence of modesty or shame.

VIII. The Gauls practiced agriculture, and were not unskillful in tillage, otherwise their country would not have supported so great a multitude of inhabitants as it is said to have maintained. Strabo states that most of the Gauls were accustomed to sleep upon the ground, and they sat on couches when they took their meals. Their food was chiefly of milk and flesh of various kinds, especially of swine, either fresh or salted. Their hogs, which were kept in the fields, were of remarkable height, strength, and swiftness, and as dangerous to those who approached them without heed as wolves. The Gauls built their houses of planks and hurdles, and of a round form, with large roofs. So numerous were their herds of oxen and swine, that not only Rome, but the rest of Italy, was supplied from them with salt provisions.

IX. To the open and impetuous disposition of the Gauls belonged, according to the ancient writers, much of folly and boastful arrogance, and a remarkable fondness for ornament and display. They wore bracelets around their arms and wrists, and those who were in office had robes dyed, and embroidered with gold. In consequence of this levity of disposition, they were intolerably arrogant when conquerors, and when defeated they became dismayed. They had the barbarous and strange habit, common to many northern nations, of carrying, when they returned from battle, the heads of their enemies suspended from their horses' necks, and of hanging them up against the gates of their towns, or of preserving them at home in chests.

X. The dress and personal habits of the Gauls were so remarkable as to afford epithets for national distinctions. Gallia Braccata and Gallia Togata are terms that have been already explained by us. The epithet Comata also had reference to the custom of the Gauls in leaving the hair uncut. Like the long-haired princes of the race of Meroveus, the warriors of ancient Gaul were celebrated for their long, flowing locks of flaxen or yellow hair, which they kept tied in tufts behind their heads. The Gallie sagum, or cloak, was parti-colored and embroidered. Not only the women, but the men, ornamented their necks and arms with a profusion of golden chains, rings, and bracelets. The whole nation are said to have been remarkable for personal cleanliness.

XI. The arms of the Gauls were commonly battle-axes and swords. But the gæsum, or heavy javelin, was their most remarkable weapon. The chariots, armed with scythes, used by the Britons in battle, were not peculiar to them; some of the Gauls had a similar custom of fighting, as Strabo informs us. Niebuhr's account of the appearance of a Gallic army is an extremely graphic one. "Every wealthy Gaul adorned himself with gold: even when he appeared in battle he wore golden

chains upon his arms and golden rings around his neck. Their mantles, checkered, and displaying all the colors of the rainbow, are still the picturesque costume of their kindred race the Highlanders, who have laid aside the *braccæ* of the ancient Gauls. Their great bodies, long, shaggy yellow hair, and uncouth features, made their appearance frightful; their figures, their savage courage, their immense numbers, the deafening noise of the numerous horns and trumpets in their armies, and the terrible devastation which followed their victories, paralyzed with terror the nations whom they invaded."

XII. From the accounts of all the ancient writers, carefully compared together, the Gauls appear to have been a remarkably tall, large-bodied, fair, blue-eyed, yellow-haired people. As, however, the Germans are no longer a light-haired race, so the descendants of the Gauls have lost the yellow hair of their fore-Although there is a great intermixture of northern German races in the present population of France, the Visigoths and Burgundians having settled in the south, and the Allemanni, Franks, and Northmen in the northern parts, all of whom had a complexion at least equally fair with that of the ancient Gauls, yet the modern are far from being a very fair people. Black hair is, in the middle provinces of France, more frequent than very light. In Paris it has been observed that a chestnut color is the most frequent hue of the hair. This appears from the average number of those admitted in some hospitals. Neither are the French so huge and almost gigantic in their stature as were the ancient Gauls. We must infer, therefore, that the physical character of the race has varied materially within fifteen centuries.

XIII. Although so much has been written on the religion of the Gauls, the extent of our real information on this subject is extremely limited. The Greeks and Romans fancied that they recognized the objects of their own worship in the gods adored by all other nations; and when Cæsar therefore informs us that the Gauls rendered divine honors to five of the Roman divinities, we are to understand by the assertion that the five principal objects of adoration among the Celtic people bore some resemblance in their attributes, and in the ceremonial of the worship paid to them, to the Roman gods with whom Cæsar identified them. These five divinities were Mercury,

Apollo, Mars, Jupiter, and Minerva. Mercury, as Cæsar declares, was the principal object of religious worship, and to him the most numerous images were erected. It seems that the Gauls were idolaters, and that their principal god was, like Mercury, the inventor of arts, the conductor and guardian in journeys, and the patron of gain and profit in merchandise. Such, we are told, were the attributes of the Gaulish Mercury. Apollo, or the Gaulish deity taken for Apollo by the Romans, was a protector against diseases; Mincrya was the promoter of arts; Jupiter, the ruler of the heavenly firmament; Mars, the god of war. It is probable that Taranis was the Celtic god whom the Romans identified with Jupiter, because taran

is the Cymric word for thunder.

XIV. Of all the pagan nations, the Gauls appear to have had the most sanguinary rites. They may well be compared in this respect with the Ashantees, Dahomehs, and other nations of Western Africa. Cæsar says that, in threatening diseases, and the imminent dangers of war, they made no scruple to sacrifice men, or engage themselves by a vow to such sacrifices. In these they made use of the ministry of the Druids; for it was a prevalent opinion among them that nothing but the life of a man could atone for the life of a man, insomuch that they had established even public sacrifices of that kind. Some prepared huge colossal figures of osier twigs, into which they put men alive, and, setting fire to them, consumed those within in the flames. They preferred for victims such as had been convicted of theft, robbery, or other crimes, believing them the most acceptable to the gods; but, when real criminals were wanting, the innocent were often made to suffer. Strabo says that there were also other immolations of human beings; some they shot with arrows or hung upon crosses, and a colossus being made of rushes fastened with wood, sheep and beasts of every kind, and men also, were burned together therein.

XV. The funeral rites of the Gauls were connected with their notions respecting the state of the dead. They believed in a future state, and the transmigration of souls. Their funerals were, as Cæsar informs us, magnificent and sumptuous according to their means. They brought to the funeral pile all the objects to which the deceased had been most attached, even his favorite animals; and a little before the age of Cæsar it had been the custom to burn with the dead even slaves and dependents who were known to have been objects of his affection. It is added by another writer that these immolations were sometimes voluntary, and that friends and relations cast themselves upon the funeral pile willingly, in order to live in a future world with the deceased.—(Prichard, Researches, vol. iii., p. 174, seqq.)

10. PRODUCTIVENESS OF GAUL.

I. Strabo declares that Gallia Narbonensis produced the same fruits of the earth as Italy. "To the northward of Mons Cebenna," he adds, "olives and figs are wanting, but the soil is fertile in other productions, though it hardly brings grapes to full maturity."

II. Every other produce, according to the same authority, abounded throughout Gaul, which bore much corn, millet, &c., and supported herds of all kinds. There was no waste land, except some tracts occupied by forests and morasses, and even these were not desert, but contained inhabitants, whose number was greater than their civilization.

III. Rome consumed a large quantity of the hams and sausages of Gaul, which were of an excellent quality. The original breed of swine, which existed in Celtic times, is still found in Normandy, especially in the valley of Auge.

IV. Some of the rivers of Gaul contained in their sands pellets of gold. The Ruteni, whose country corresponds to the modern *Rovergne*, worked mines of silver. Iron appears to have been the metal best known. The Gauls had invented a combination of copper and tin, which had the appearance of silver, and they made out of this various ornaments for their vehicles and harness. They were also skilled in the manufacture of glass-ware.

11. GALLIA MORE IN DETAIL.

PROVINCES.

1. NARBONENSIS.

(A.); NAMES.

I. This division of Gallia was, as we have already remarked, called at first *Provincia Romana*, from the first part of which name was subsequently derived the modern appellation of

Provence. (For an account of the origin of this province, consult § vi., p. 76.)

II. It was also called *Gallia Narbonensis*, from its capital *Narbo*, the modern *Narbonne*. The corresponding Greek names for Narbonensis are Ναρδωνῖτις and Ναρδωνησία.

III. It was also termed Gallia Braccata, from the braccae worn by the inhabitants. These braccae were a kind of trowsers or pantaloons, and were worn by all the Gauls; but the Romans, having seen them for the first time in this quarter, thought that they were peculiar to this section of the country, and therefore named this part of Gaul after them.

OBS. Bracca were not peculiar to the Gauls, but were common to all the nations which encircled the Greek and Roman population, extending from the Indian to the Atlantic Ocean. Hence Aristagoras, king of Miletus, in his interview with Cleomenes, king of Sparta, described the attire of a large portion of them in these terms: "They carry bows and a short spear, and go to battle in trowsers, and with hats upon their heads." (Herod., v., 49.) Hence, also, the phrase "Braccati militis arcus," signifying that those who wore trowsers were in general armed with the bow. (Propert., iii., 3, 17.) In particular, we are informed of the use of trowsers or pantaloons among the following nations. 1. The Medes and Persians; 2. The Parthians and Armenians; 3. The Phrygians; 4. The Sacæ; 5. The Sarmatæ; 6. The Dacians and Getæ; 7. The Teutones; 8. The Franks; 9. The Belgæ; 10. The Britons; 11. The Gauls. The Gallic term "brakes," which Diodorus Siculus has preserved in speaking of the Gauls (χρῶνται ἀναξυρίσι, ας ἐκεῖνοι βράκας προςαγορεύουσι, lv., 30), also remains in the Scottish "breeks," and the English "breeches." Corresponding terms are used in all the northern languages (compare Ihre, Glossar. Suio-Goth., s. v. Brackor). Also the Cossack and Persian trowsers of the present day differ in no material respect from those which were worn anciently in the same countries. Trowsers were principally woollen, but Agathias states (Hist., ii., 5) that in Europe they were also made of linen and of leather; probably the Asiatics made them of cotton and of silk. Sometimes they were striped, ornamented with a woof of various colors, or embroidered. They gradually came into use at Rome under the emperors.

(B.) BOUNDARIES.

Gallia Narbonensis was bounded on the south by the Mediterranean, on the east by the Alps, on the west by Aquitania, and on the north by the Rhodanus in the western part of its course. Pliny gives its length as two hundred and seventy Roman miles, and its breadth as two hundred and forty-eight of the same. Ptolemy compares its shape to that of a parallelogram.

(C.) Tribes of Narbonensis. Larger Communities.

The larger communities were seven in number, and may be subdivided into two classes, namely, 1. Tribes dwelling on the west side of the Rhodanus, and, 2. Tribes dwelling on the eastern side of the same stream.

1. Tribes dwelling on the west side of the Rhodănus.

I. Bebryces (Βέβρνκες), called, also, Sardŏnes (Σάρδονες), a mountaineer race, occupying a part of the Pyrenees, and extending thence along the shore as far as Narbo, the modern Narbonne. They were called Bebryces prior to Roman times, and Sardones afterward. They were of Iberian descent. Their territory corresponded to the modern department of Pyrénées Orientales, and the southern part of the department of Aude.

II. Volcæ (Οὐόλκαι and Βολκαί), subdivided into the Volcæ Tectosages and the Volcæ Arecomici. The territory of the former answered to the departments of Arriège, Haute Garonne, Tarn, and the southwestern part of the department of Aveiron, and that of the latter to the departments of Herault, Gard, and the southeastern part of the department of Aveiron and that of Lozère. The Volcæ were a large and powerful tribe of Celtic origin, and comprehended under the two main divisions just mentioned many minor communities, of whom the Ætacini appear to have been the most important.

III. Helvii (Ἑλονοί), a tribe also of Celtic origin, to the north of the Arecomiei, and occupying what is now the department of Ardèche. They are also called Elui.

2. Tribes dwelling on the east side of the Rhodănus.

I. Allobrŏges (᾿Αλλόβρογες and ᾿Αλλόβρογες), between the Rhodănus and Isāra, in what is now the northern part of the department of Drôme, the departments of Isère and Mont Blanc, and the western portion of the department of Leman. They were a large and powerful tribe of Celtic origin. Their chief city was Vienna, now Vienne, and their farthest city to the north was Genēva, which still retains its name.

II. Cavăres or Cavări (Καύαρες), between the Rhodanus, the Druentia, and the Isara, in what is now the department of Vaucluse, and the western portion of the department of Drôme;

they dwelt, therefore, around what are now Avignon, Carpentras, Orange, and Montelimart.

III. Vocontii or Vocuntii (Οὐοκόντιοι), a powerful tribe, in alliance with the Romans, and therefore enjoying their own laws. They occupied what is now the largest portion of the western division of the departments of the Hautes and Basses Alpes.

IV. Salyes ($\Sigma \acute{a}\lambda v \varepsilon \varsigma$), called, also, Salluvii, Salici, or Sallyi. Their territory corresponded to what is now the departments of the *Rhone* and *Var*. They were a large and savage tribe, of Lygian or Ligurian origin.

Smaller Tribes.

Besides the larger tribes just mentioned, we find the following smaller ones, partly surrounded by the larger communities, and partly belonging to the same, namely, 1. Nantuātes, in the northernmost part of the province, just below the Lacus Lemanus, or Lake of Geneva. Cæsar speaks of this tribe in connection with the Verăgri and Seduni, who lay to the east and southeast of them, and he makes the territories of the three extend from the confines of the Allobroges, and the Lacus Lemanus, and Rhodanus, as far as the Alps. The object of the Roman commander was to open a secure route for traders over the Alps in this quarter, and one on which they would not be subject to heavy imposts, and he appears to have succeeded in The chief city of the Veragri was Octodurus, now Martigni or Martinach; and that of the Seduni was Civitas Sedunorum, now Sion. 2. Centrones, to the south of the Nantuates, among the Graian Alps. Their territory answered to the modern Tarantaise. 3. Caturiges, to the south of the preceding, among the Cottian Alps. 4. Tricorii, to the west of the preceding. 5. Vulgientes, Memini, and Albiæci, to the south of the preceding. 6. Suelteri and Commoni, toward the coast. 7. Oxybii, to the northeast of the preceding, between Forum Julii, now Frejus, and Antipolis, now Antibes.

(D.) CITIES OF NARBONENSIS.

1. Cities between the Pyrenees and the Rhodănus.

I. These may be divided into two classes, namely, 1. Cities on the coast, and, 2. Cities in the interior of the country.

II. They will comprise the cities of the Bebryces, Volcæ Tectösäges, Volcæ Arecomici, and Helvii.

1. Cities on the Coast.

In the territory of the Bebryces we find, 1. Illiběris or Eliberri, on the River Illiberis, and where Hannibal pitched his camp after crossing the Pyrenees. It was at first a place of some importance, but subsequently declined, until Constantine the Great re-established it, and called it Helena, in honor of his mother. Here the Emperor Constans was overtaken and slain by the cavalry of the usurper Magnentius. It is now Elne, on the River Tech. 2. Ruscino ($\dot{\eta}$ 'Povo κ ivov), to the north of the preceding, on the River Ruscino. The city is now La Tour de Roussillon, and the river is now the Tèt.

In the territory of the Volca Tectosages we find, 1. Narbo Martius (ἡ Νάρδων), now Narbonne, on the little river Atax or Adax, now the Aude, in the northeastern angle of the Lacus Rubresus, now L'E'tang de Sigean. It was an old city, and the capital of the province, to which it gave name. fore the arrival of the Romans in Gaul, Narbo was an important commercial place, and hence the first colony planted by Rome in this country was established here (B.C. 116). The new settlement was called Colonia Atacinorum, from the Atacini, a tribe of the Tectosages, who dwelt in this quarter, and with whom the Roman settlers became intermingled. This name was subsequently changed to Colonia Atacinorum Decumanorumque, the additional part, Decumanorum, having been derived from the Legio Decumana, or tenth legion, the remains of which were settled here by Julius Cæsar, whence also the city of Narbo received the appellation of Martius. The traces of a large canal are still shown here, which the Romans cut in order to connect the lake into which the Atax flowed with the sea. The main road from Italy to Spain ran through this place. Cicero calls Narbo "Specula Populi Romani ac propugnaculum," and Strabo designates it as being in his time the emporium of all Gaul. It fell into the hands of the Visigoths, A.D. 462, and was shortly afterward made the capital of their kingdom. In 720 it was taken by the Saracens, and in 759 by Pepin-le-bref.

2. Bæterræ Septimanorum, to the northeast, now Bezières.

It was situate on the left bank of the *Obris*, now *Orbe*. The epithet *Septimanorum* was derived from the soldiers of the seventh legion, who were settled here as a colony.

In the territory of the Volcæ Arecomici we find, 1. Agatha or Agathe ('Ayá $\theta\eta$), now Agde. It was a settlement of the Massilians, as Strabo informs us, and situate at the mouth of the River Arauris, now the Hérault. 2. Mesua, now Mèse, called Mansa by Avienus. 3. Ledus, now Lattes.

2. Cities in the Interior.

In the territory of the Volca Tectosages we find, 1. Tolosa Tectosagum (Τολῶσα), now Toulouse. This was a very old city, and famed for its size and wealth before the arrival of the Romans in Gaul, and contained a temple held in great veneration by all who dwelt around the place, and remarkable for its riches, arising from pious offerings. The gold obtained by Brennus from the plunder of Delphi is said also to have been deposited here. Servilius Capio, the Roman commander, on the capture of the city, seized upon the treasures of the temple for his own use; but the misfortunes which subsequently befell him, and which were ascribed to this act of sacrilege, gave rise to the proverb "Aurum Tolosanum." The Romans made this place a colony, and under their dominion it became celebrated as a seat of the sciences. 2. Carcaso or Carcasum, now Carcassone, on the Atax. 3. Usuerva or Hosuerva, near Narbo, now Aubère.

In the territory of the Volcæ Arecomici we find, 1. Nemausus, now Nismes, a place of great antiquity. It lay on the Roman military road from Italy to Spain, on the southernmost slope of Mons Cebenna, and was distant one hundred stadia from the Rhodanus, and seven hundred and twenty from Narbo. Strabo makes it the capital of the Arecomici, and states that, though inferior to Narbo in the number of strangers and others resorting to it for the purposes of trade, it was superior in the number of its citizens. The town exercised authority over twenty-four populous villages, and enjoyed the Jus Latii, by virtue of which those elected to the ædileship or quæstorship in Nemausus acquired the rights of Roman citizens. Nemausus was fortified with walls and gates by the Emperor Augustus, about fourteen years before the Christian era. It

was the birth-place of Antoninus Pius. In the downfall of the Roman empire, Nemausus suffered much; still, however, of all the towns in France, it preserves the most striking memorials of its ancient grandeur. It has been styled, in fact, "a second Rome." The two most remarkable remains are the ancient building known as "La Maison Carrée" (the square house), though not square, as its name would imply, but a parallelogram, and the amphitheatre. The former of these buildings was a temple erected to M. Aurelius and L. Verus. The amphitheatre is in better preservation than the Coliseum at Rome, and of greater extent than the amphitheatre of Verona. It has been computed to have been capable of holding 17,000 persons.

2. Ugernum, to the southeast of Nemausus, now Beaucaire, on the Rhone. Strabo calls the place Οἔγερνον. Here Avitus was raised to the empire, A.D. 456, by the assistance of the Visigoths. 3. Vindomagus, in the territory of the Adricomii, now Vigan. 4. Andusia, to the northeast of the preceding, now Anduze.

In the territory of the *Helvii* we find, 1. *Alba Augusta*, the capital of the tribe, and more commonly called *Alba Helviorum*. Ptolemy, in mentioning it, corrupts the latter part of the name, and calls the Helvii by the appellation of *Elicoci*, and errs still further in placing the city on the east instead of the west side of the Rhone. It is now *Alps* or *Aps*, according to D'Anville. Some, however, are in favor of *Viviers*. 2. *Apollinarium*, now *Aubenas*. 3. *Batiana*, northeast of Alba Augusta, now *Bais*.

2. Cities between the Rhodănus and the Alps.

I. These may also be divided into two classes, like those just enumerated, namely, 1. Cities on the coast, and, 2. Cities in the interior.

II. They will comprise the cities of the Salyes, Cavares, Vocontii, Allobroges, and some of the smaller tribes.

1. Cities on the Coast.

In the territory of the Salyes, or between the Druentia and the sea, we find, 1. *Tarasco*, a small place called πολίχνιον by Strabo, and lying opposite to Nemausus, on the other side of the Rhodanus. It is now *Tarascon*. 2. *Arelāte*, to the south

of the preceding, situate on the Rhodanus, just where the river divided into two channels, and now Arles. It is first mentioned by Cæsar (B. C., i., 36; ii., 5), who built here twelve ships of war previous to the siege of Massilia. Strabo speaks of it as a place of no small trade in his time. Pomponius Mela, a writer somewhat later than Strabo, describes it as one of the richest cities of Gallia Narbonensis. Other authors make it a Roman colony; and it was probably from the circumstance of some of the colonists belonging to the sixth legion that it got the name of Arelate Sextanorum. The name is variously written. Arelate is most common, but we find also Arelas (especially in the poets), Arelata ('Αρελάται, Strabo), and Arelatum ('Αρέλατον, Ptolemy), and in later times Arelatus. This city appears to have suffered considerably from the Allemanni during the decline of the Roman empire, but in the early part of the fourth century it rose to greatness and distinction under the patronage of Constantine the Great. prince appears to have built that part of Arelate which lay beyond the Rhone, and which forms, in the present day, the suburb of Trinquetaille, in the island La Camargue. He also gave to Arelate the name of Constantina, which it continued to bear in the time of Honorius (a century later), who transferred to it the seat of the prætorian prefect of Gallia, which had been previously fixed at Augusta Trevirorum, or Trèves. The dignity of Arelate survived the fall of the western empire. It was the residence of a king of the Visigoths, and of a prefect under Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths. Under the Merovingian Franks it declined.

In the vicinity of Arelate were the celebrated Campi Lapidei, called, also, Campi Lapidarii (τὸ λίθινον πέδον), "the stony fields," the poetic tradition respecting which made this region the scene of the combat between Hercules and the two brothers Albion and Bergion, the giant sons of Neptune. The hero, when about crossing the Rhone with the oxen of Geryon, was opposed by these two giants, and, having exhausted his arrows in the conflict, prayed to Jove for aid, who thereupon sent him a shower of stones, with which he proved victorious. The plain was well known to the ancients, and is described very accurately by Strabo, except that he assigns it too small an extent. It lies near the eastern bank of the east channel of the

Rhone, between it and the E'tang de Berre, and, according to modern accounts, contains from 140,000 to 170,000 English acres. It is composed entirely of shingle, or, in other words, is covered all over with rolled boulders and pebbles, the stones varying in size from that of a pea to that of a pumpkin; and it is as free from any intermixture of soil as the shingle upon the sea-shore. Vegetation is poor and miserable, yet the district supplies winter pasturage to immense flocks of sheep. The modern name is the plain of La Crau. This whole region must at one time have been entirely submerged, and the stones must have been deposited by the Rhone and its tributaries, especially the Durance, under circumstances very different from their present physical condition.

On the route from Arelate to Massilia lay, 3. Maritima Aduaticorum, now Miramas, according to Reichard and Mannert, while others are in favor of Martigues. It was also called Maritima Colonia and Anatiliorum Urbs, since it lay in the territory of the Anatilii. It was a place of considerable trade. 4. Calcaria, now Calissane.

We now come to, 5. Massilia, called by the Greeks Maggaλία, and now Marseilles. This place was founded by the Phocæans of Asia Minor, and was perhaps the earliest, as it certainly was the most important of their settlements in the western part of the Mediterranean. Two colonies of Phoceans successively established themselves in the place, the first about B.C. 600, while Phocæa was yet flourishing. The second colonization of Massilia took place about B.C. 544, on occasion of the Phocæans quitting their native city to avoid the subjection with which they were threatened by the Persians. The Massilians were early involved in hostilities with the native tribes, Ligurian and Celtic, over whom they obtained several victories, and established new settlements along the coast, in order to retain them in subjection. The surrounding barbarians acquired from the new settlers some of the arts of civilized life: they learned to prune and train the vine, and to plant the olive. The Massilians had also to contend with the power of the Carthaginians (the commercial rivals of the Greeks in western Europe), whom they defeated in a sea-fight of early but uncertain date. The Massilian Constitution was aristocratic; their laws and their religious rites were similar to those of the

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Ionians of Asia. The governing body was a senate of six hundred persons, called Timuchi (τιμοῦχοι), who were appointed for life. This senate had fifteen presidents ($\pi\rho o \epsilon \sigma \tau \tilde{\omega} \tau \epsilon \varsigma$), who formed a sort of committee, by which the ordinary business of the government was managed. Of this committee three persons possessed the chief power. The Timuchi were chosen from among those who had children, and in whose family the right of citizenship had been possessed by three generations. The Massilians, like the Phocæans, were a naval people, and planted several colonies on the coasts of Gaul, Spain, and Italy. They early and steadily cultivated an alliance with the Romans, which alliance was gradually converted into subjection. In the civil war of Pompey and Cæsar, they embraced the party of the former, and closed their gates upon Cæsar, under pretence of preserving neutrality (B.C. 49). After contending for some time against Cæsar's lieutenants, Trebonius and Brutus, they surrendered to that commander himself on his return from his victory over the Pompeians in Spain. Cæsar, however, did not reduce them to entire subjection, but left two legions in garrison, while he marched forward into Italy. The municipal government of Massilia remained unaltered, but its political independence was virtually overthrown. The attention of the Massilians was now more directed to literature and philosophy, of which, indeed, they were already diligent cultivators. They had spread through the south of Gaul the knowledge of the Greek written character, which Cæsar found in use among the Helvetii, and now their city became to the west of Europe what Athens was to the east. The moderate charges and frugal habits of the citizens added to the advantages of the spot as a place of study, and the most illustrious of the Roman youth resorted thither. Cicero has recorded in the strongest language the praises of the Massilians (Orat. pro L. Flacco, c. 26). Livy has put a high encomium upon them in the mouth of a Rhodian embassador (xxxvii., 54); and Tacitus (Agric., c. 4) has spoken in the same strain. For more than three centuries the history of Massilia presents no events of interest. In the troubles which followed the abdication of Dioclesian and Maximian, the latter (A.D. 310) attempted to resume the purple at Arelate, to the prejudice of the Emperor Constantine, his son-in-law; but, being baffled in his attempt,

he fled to Massilia, which he vainly attempted to defend. The city was taken by Constantine, and Maximian became his own executioner. In the reign of Honorius, Massilia repelled the attempt of the Visigothic king, Ataulphus, to take possession, but it afterward became the prey of the Burgundians, Visigoths, and Franks. It was taken from the Franks by Theodoric the Ostrogoth, king of Italy. Toward the middle of the sixth century, it was ceded with the rest of Provence by Vitiges the Ostrogoth to the Franks.

Leaving Massilia, and following the line of the coast, we come next to, 6. Tauroentum, called, also, Tauroeis and Taurentium, the site of which is to be sought between Ceireste and Toulon. Ukert places it at Tarento. 7. Telo Martius, now Toulon. This place is noticed as a harbor in the "Itinerarium" Maritimum" of Antoninus. It is noticed, also, by the anonymous geographer of Ravenna, who calls it simply Telo; and from the "Notitia Dignitatum per Gallias," which enumerates, among other officers, the "Procurator Baphii Telonensis Galliarum" (Overseer of the dye-house for the provinces of Gaul at Telo), it appears that the principal government dye-house in Gaul was here. A bishopric was established here in the fourth century, which continued till the Revolution: the bishop was a suffragan of the Archbishop of Arelate. In the Middle Ages. Telo Martius was repeatedly ruined by the Saracens, and as often recovered from the disaster. 8. Olbia, a Massilian colony, now, according to D'Anville, Eoubes, not far from Hières. Along this coast are three islands, called, respectively, Prote, Mese, and Hypæa, or, by a general name, Stæchades, of which mention will be made in speaking of the islands of Narbonensis. 9. Forum Julii, to the northeast of the preceding, now Frejus. This place is supposed to have been originally a colony of the Massilians, but the time of its foundation is unknown. It took its Roman name from Julius Cæsar, who may possibly have commenced the excavation of the port, which was completed in the time of Augustus. This emperor established here the station of a fleet destined to protect the coast of Gaul. A Roman colony was also fixed here at the same time, and the town became wealthy and populous. It was the birth-place of the celebrated Agricola. 10. Aquæ Sextiæ, now Aix, northeast of Massilia, and just above the River Canus, now the

Arc. It owed its origin and name to the Romans; for the proconsul C. Sextius Calvinus, having defeated the Saluvii or Salves, founded a colony here about 120 B.C., and gave it, on account of its medicinal springs, the name of Aque Sextia, i. e., "the waters of Sextius." These springs have been discovered in modern days, but are now in small repute. 11. Ad Horrea, now Cannes. 12. Antipolis, now Antibes. This place was founded by the Massilians as a barrier against the incursions of the Salves and Ligurians. Some accounts state that the Massilians took it from a tribe of the Ligurians. It was taken from under the jurisdiction of Massilia, in the time of Augustus, and placed in the rank of an Italic city; and it appears to have been a flourishing place, to which the tunny fishery may have contributed. The remains of a theatre and some other ancient buildings attest its former importance. During the Roman dominion there was an arsenal here, and the town was protected by fortifications, of which two strong towers yet remain. 13. Nicæa (Νίκαια), lying to the east of the Varus or Var, now Nice. It was founded by the Massilians, and fortified by them to repress the neighboring tribes, and secure the navigation of the adjacent sea. It continued subject to the Massilians after the establishment of the Varus as the boundary of Gaul and Italy. In the Middle Ages it was a strong fortress.

2. Cities in the Interior of the Country.

I. These may be subdivided into four classes, namely, 1. Cities between the left or southern arm of the Druentia and the places along the coast which have just been mentioned; 2. Cities between the right and left arms of the Druentia; 3. Cities between the right arm of the Druentia and the River Isara; 4. Cities between the Isara and the Rhodanus.

II. The first of these classes will comprehend cities belonging to the Oxybii, Suetri, Nerusi, and Vediantii; the second, cities belonging to the Albiæci, Avantici, and Bodiontici; the third, cities belonging to the Memini, Vulgientes, Vocontii, Cavares, Segalauni, and Tricorii; and the fourth, cities belonging to the Allobroges, Tricastini, and Nantuātes.

First Class. 1. Alba Augusta, now Aups. Not to be confounded with Alba Helviorum, also called Alba Augusta, which

lay on the other side of the Rhone, in the territory of the Helvii. 2. Anteæ or Anteis, now Ampuis. 3. Salinæ, a city of the Suetri, taking its name from the salt springs in its neighborhood, now Castellane, in the Maritime Alps. 4. Vergunni, the name of a city and people among the Alps, now Vergons. 5. Ectini, another Alpine city and people, now Estène. 6. Glannativa or Glannateva, mentioned by the writers of the Middle Ages, now Glandèves.

Second Class. 1. Griselum, in the angle between the two arms of the Druentia. There were medicinal springs in this quarter, and hence the place was also called Aquæ Griselicæ. An inscription, in which the words Nymphis Griselicis occur, was found at the baths of Greoulx, and therefore fixes the locality. 2. Reii Apollinares, or simply Reii, to the northeast of the preceding, now Riez. It was a Roman colony. The earlier name was Albece or Albiæce, and it was the capital of the Albiæci. 3. Sanitium or Civitas Saniciensium, to the northeast, now Senez. 4. Dinia or Civitas Dienensium, now Digne, to the northwest of Sanitium.

Third Class. 1. Apta Julia, the capital of the Vulgientes, north of the Druentia, and east of Avenio. It is now Apt. was a Roman colony, as the latter part of the name indicates. 2. Cabellio, the capital of the Cavares, to the west of the preceding, and lying on the Druentia; now Cavaillon, on the Du-3. Avenio, in the angle between the Rhodanus and Druentia, now Avignon. Some writers ascribe the origin of Avenio to a colony from Massilia; according to another opinion, it was the original capital of the Cavares, from whom it was called Avenio Cavarum. It came into the hands of the Romans at an early period of their dominion in Gaul, and a Roman colony appears to have been established here. Upon the downfall of the Roman empire in the west of Europe, it was possessed by the Burgundians, and afforded to the king of that people a secure asylum from the power of Clovis, king of the Franks, who besieged it in vain. It subsequently became subject, perhaps for a short time, to the Visigoths, certainly to the Ostrogoths, Franks, and Saracens. The Saracens took it twice, but could not retain it. 4. Carpentoracte, to the northeast of Avenio, now Carpentras, on the River Auzon. It belonged to the Cavares, and became a Roman colony under Julius Cæsar. Valesius makes it identical with Ptolemy's Forum Neronis Meminorum, but this is rather Forcalquier. At Carpentoracte may still be seen the remains of a triumphal arch of Domitius Ahenobarbus, who defeated here the Allobroges and Arverni. 5. Arausio ('Αρανσίων), now Orange, north of Avenio. This was also a city of the Cavares. Pliny call it Arausio Secundanorum, from the soldiers of the second legion, who were settled there as colonists. On coins the full title is Colonia Arausio Secundanorum Cohortis XXXIII. Orange contains more Roman antiquities than most other towns in France, and may vie with the eities of Italy. The principal of these is a triumphal arch, ealled, by the inhabitants of the district, the Arch of Marius, but which is probably of the age of Augustus. The Visigoths and Burgundians got possession of this place on the downfall of the Roman empire, and from them it passed to the Franks. In the Middle Ages it was the capital of a principality, which, after passing through different families, came to that of Nassau. The title of Prince of Orange is still retained by the royal family of Holland. 6. Vasio, now Vaison, to the northeast of Arausio, called by Pliny "Colonia et Caput Vocontiorum." It was the native place of Trogus Pompeius.

7. Næomägus, called, also, Augusta, now Nion, northwest of Vasio. 8. Mons Seleucus or Saleucus, to the east, the name of a mountain and city where Magnentius met with his second defeat from Constantius. Many remains of antiquity are still found here. The name of the spot, as given by Ukert, is La bâtie Mont Saléon. 9. Dea Vocontiorum, now Dié, to the northwest. A Roman colony was settled here, with the title of Colonia Dea Augusta Vocontiorum. 10. Valentia, to the northwest, now Valence. It was situate on the Rhodanus, a short distance below the junction of the Isara with that stream. It was the capital of the Segalauni or Segovellauni, and is mentioned by Ptolemy as a colony. In the time of the later western emperors it was a place of considerable strength, and afforded a refuge to Constantine, who had assumed the purple in Britain, and was fruitlessly besieged here by Sarus the Goth, whom Stilicho had sent against him. Jovinus, another usurper, sought refuge here, but the town was taken by the Visigoths, who, under their king Ataulphus, had taken part against him.

It was afterward subject to the Burgundians, and passed from them to the Franks. In the Middle Ages it formed part of the kingdom of Arles, and was the capital of Valentinois, a district of Dauphiné.

On the eastern side of the River Tricus or Tracus, now the Drac, which flowed into the Isara just below Gratianopolis, now Grenoble, dwelt the Tricorii. Among their cities, continuing our enumeration of those composing the third class, we may mention, 1. Gratianopolis. In the "Theodosian Table," and in the "Notitia Imperii," it is designated by the name of Cularo. Inscriptions, which have been dug up, speak of the fortifications and the edifices within the town, which were erected by the emperors Dioclesian and Maximian, from whose assumed designations of Jovius and Herculius two of the gates were named Porta Jovia and Porta Herculea. In the fourth century the name Gratianopolis was given to the town, in compliment to the Emperor Gratianus; and this name gradually superseded the old one, Cularo, and was the origin of the modern one, Grenoble. In Cicero's time, Cularo was a frontier town of the Allobroges, to which tribe the Tricorii appear originally to have belonged. 2. Ucense Castrum, to the southeast of the preceding, the site of which, according to Durandi, is to be sought in the vicinity of either Oze (called in the Middle Ages Ossis) or in that of Huez. 3. Catorissium, to the northeast, now, according to Reichard, Petit Chat. 4. Caturiga, called, also, Caturigomagus or Catorimagus, to the southeast of the preceding, near the Druentia. It was the capital of the Caturiges, and is now Chorges. 5. Eburodunum or Ebrodunum, now Embrun, to the northeast of the preceding, on a mountain, the roots of which were washed by the Druentia. In the " Notitia Civit. Prov. Max. Sequan." it is called Castrum Ebredunense. This place obtained various privileges from the Roman emperors.

Fourth Class. 1. Vienna, now Vienne, on the Rhodanus, and the capital of the Allobroges. This place was already in existence in the time of Cæsar, who makes mention of it in his commentaries. Ptolemy writes the name Oċtevva, which is also the orthography of Strabo, while in the Peutinger Table it is written Vigenna; this last, however, is very probably a mistake. It was a Roman colony, and the rival of its neigh-

bor Lugdunum, or Lyons. In the civil war at the close of Nero's reign, it embraced the party of Galba, from whom it received many honors. Tradition fixes Vienna as the place of Pilate's banishment after he had been displaced from his government of Judæa, and a Roman structure, still standing, is popularly called his tomb. The people of this place appear to have been great admirers of the epigrams of Martial, which has been taken as an indication that literature was cultivated among them. Martial gives to Vienna the epithet "vitifera" (vinebearing), and the vineyards on the Rhone, immediately opposite, still produce the Côte Rôtie, one of the finest of the French red wines, while the hills around Vienne, on both sides of the river, are covered with vineyards, which produce abundance of good red wine. 2. Genēva, now Geneve, as the name is written in French, or Genf, according to the German orthography, while in English we still call it Geneva. It was situate at the southwestern extremity of the Lacus Lemanus, or Lake of Geneva, where the Rhodanus issued from it, and on the southern bank of the stream. The place is mentioned by Cæsar. who speaks of it as the farthest city of the Allobroges in this quarter, and close to the confines of the Helvetii, with whose territory it was connected by a bridge across the Rhodanus. Modern Geneva occupies both banks of the stream, though the larger portion of the city is still on the southern side. somewhat surprising that, down to the time of the "Itineraries" and the "Theodosian Table," no one of the geographical writers subsequent to the time of Cæsar makes any mention of the place. By the writers of the Middle Ages it is often alluded to, but under the name of Genana, Jenna, &c. 3. Tarnāja, called, also, Acaunum, now St. Maurice, on the Rhone. 4. Octodurus, now Martigny or Martinach. 5. Centronum Civitas, called, in the Notitia, Darantasia, the capital of the Centrones, on the Isara, now Montiers, on the Isère.

Islands belonging to Gallia Narbonensis, and lying in the Sinus Gallicus.

I. Blascon (ή Βλασκών), now Brescon, belonging to the Volcæ Arecomici, and not far from Agatha, and the mouth of the Arauris, or Herault.

II. Metina, lying anciently, according to Pliny, in the mouth

of the Rhone, "in Rhodani ostio." As, however, he gives the river three mouths, and as the island is not any further mentioned, its position can not be determined with certainty. Mannert is in favor of identifying it with the small island of Jamatan, which, along with two others, lies in front of the eastern mouth of the Rhone.

III. Stæchādes (ai Στοιχάδες νησοι), now Isles d'Hières, belonging to the territory of the Salves, and lying in a southeast direction from Telo Martius, or Toulon. The Greek name has reference to their being ranged on the same line, or in a row (from στοῖχος, "a row"). They received this appellation from the Massilians, who colonized some of them. Strabo and Ptolemy make the number to have been five, three large and two small, but give the names of only three, Prote, now Parquerolles; Mese or Pomponiana, now Portcros; and Hypæa, now du Levant or Titan. The two smaller ones Mannert thinks are the modern Ribandas and Bageaux. Mela comprehends under the name of Steechades all the islands along the coast of Gaul from Liguria to Massilia. Ammianus Marcellinus places them near Nicæa and Antipolis. Dioscorides calls these islands Στιχάδες, and Apollonius Rhodius, Λιγνστίδες, from their being inhabited by Ligyans, who, as before remarked, are the same with the Salyes. Tacitus styles them Massiliensium insulæ.

IV. Planasia, called, also, Lerina, now St. Honorat, near Antipolis.

V. Leron (ἡ Λήρων), now St. Marguerite, also near Antipolis. All the islands in this quarter, including the Steechades, &c., were held by the Massilians, who fortified them against the incursions of pirates. On the island of Leron they erected a temple to the hero Leron, after whom the island was named.

2. AQUITANIA.

15.

(A.) NAMES.

I. The name Aquitania, as we have already seen, was originally applied to the southwestern corner of Gaul, from the Garumna to the Pyrenees, but was afterward, in the time of Augustus, extended to that portion of Celtic Gaul comprehended between the Garumna and Ligeris.

II. According to Pliny, the earlier name of Aquitania proper

was Armorica, a Celtic appellation, denoting a region bordering on the sea, and derived from the Celtic words ar mor, "on the sea."

Obs. Ukert thinks that Pliny is here in error, the term Armorica properly denoting the tract of country along the Atlantic, between the mouth of the Ligeris and that of the Sequana. Mannert, on the other hand, defends the correctness of Pliny's remark. According to Mannert, the Gauls gave the name of Armorica to all the country on the coast of Gaul, as a general appellation; and as the Romans before Cæsar's time knew no other coast of Gaul but that of Aquitania, he supposes that they considered the term Armorica to apply in a special sense to this whole country, and he even thinks that the name Aquitania is nothing more than a Latin form of the word Armorica.

(B.) EARLY AND SUBSEQUENT HISTORY OF AQUITANIA.

I. The original inhabitants of Aquitania proper are supposed to have been of Iberian origin, and distinct from the Celtic race. The names of places among the tribes of Aquitanian origin, therefore, are in the Iberian form, and not a single one of such places had a Celtic appellation.

II. Still, however, we must not suppose that, even in Aquitania proper, there were not some tribes of Celtic origin, as the names of their towns denote. These were, however, comparatively very few in number, and the most important one appears to have been that of the *Bituriges Vibisci*.

III. Cæsar did not go into Aquitania, but his lieutenant, the younger Crassus, made an incursion into it. The country, however, was not finally subjugated until the year 28 B.C., when Augustus sent Marcus Valerius Messala to conquer it. The poet Tibullus accompanied Messala in this expedition, which he has commemorated in his poems.

IV. Under the reign of Honorius, the Visigoths, after ravaging Italy, passed into Gaul, and took possession of Aquitania, which they kept until Clovis, king of the Franks, defeated them in a great battle near Poictiers, A.D. 507, and killed their king, Alaric II. Aquitania then became part of the monarchy of the Franks, but under the weak successors of Clovis it was detached from it again, and given as an appanage to Charibert, a younger son of Clotarius II.

· V. At a later period, Aquitania underwent another change in its southern limits. The Vascones, a Spanish people, finding themselves hard pressed by the Visigoths, crossed the Pyrenees, and settled in the southern part of Aquitania, which from them took the name of Vasconia or Gascony, which it has retained ever since, while the more northern parts of the same province continued to be called Aquitaine, and afterward, by corruption, Guienne.

(C.) TRIBES OF AQUITANIA.

The tribes of Aquitania, in the extended sense of the name, may be divided into two great classes, namely, 1. Tribes between the Pyrenees and Garumna, and, 2. Tribes between the Garumna and the Ligeris.

1. Tribes between the Pyrenees and Garumna.

(a) Larger Communities.

I. Tarbelli (Τάρθελλοι), on the Atlantic coast, extending from the Pyrenees to the territory of the Bituriges Vibisci, who dwelt around the mouth of the Garumna. They occupied what would now correspond to the departments of the Basses Pyrénées and Landes.

II. Auscii (Αὔσκιοι), between the Aturis and the Garumna. Their country would correspond now to portions of the present departments of Hautes Pyrénées, Gers, &c. Mela calls them the most renowned of the Aquitani, "Aquitanorum clarissimi sunt Auscii;" and Strabo calls their country a beautiful one; καλὴ δὲ καὶ ἡ τῶν Αὐσκίων.

III. Bituriges Vibisci (Βιτούριγες οἱ Οὐΐδισκοι), called by Strabo Ἰοσκοί, and by Pliny "Bituriges Liberi, cognomine Ubisci," a large and powerful people of Celtic origin, on both sides of the Garumna, near its mouth. They dwelt, therefore, in what would be now the country around Bourdeaux, in the department of Gironde. The Boii, whom Ausonius first mentions in this quarter, dwelt still nearer the mouth of the river, and the Vasātes and Nitiobrīges occupied small tracts of country along the left banks of the Rhodanus. These three last mentioned tribes were also Celtic ones.

(b) Smaller Communities.

Of these the most worthy of mention were the following: 1. Convenæ, on both sides of the Garumna, at the foot of the Pyrenees. They were a mixed race of deserters and robbers, and were finally settled by Pompey in the town of Lugdunum Convenarum, now St. Bertrand. 2. Bigerrones, between the Tarbelli and Convenæ. 3. Elŭsātes, to the northwest of the Auscii. Their chief city was Elŭsa, now Eauze, on the Gelize, in the department of Gers. 4. Cocossātes, called by Pliny Cocossates Sexsignāni, dwelling in what is now the neighborhood of Chalosse, between Dax and Mont de Marsan. 5. Onobrisates, dwelling in the vicinity of the modern Nébousan. 6. Tarusātes, around what is now Tursan, in the department of Landes. 7. Vasātes, called by Cæsar Vacates, and the same, probably, with the Basabocades of Pliny. Their territory lay on the left bank of the Garumna, and corresponded to what used to be Bazadois.

2. Tribes between the Garumna and Ligeris.

(a) Larger Communities.

I. Pictones (Πίκτονες), called by Ammianus Marcellinus Pictavi, dwelling immediately south of the Ligeris, in the lower part of its course. Their territory answered to what is now the department of La Vendée, and the southern and western parts of the department of Loire inférieure, the department of Deux Sévres, and the southern part of the department of Mayenne et Loire. In other words, their territory corresponded to what was formerly Poitou.

II. Bitŭrīges Cubi (Βιτύριγες oi Κοῦθοι), dwelling to the northeast of the preceding, in what is now the departments of Vienne, Indre, and Cher.

III. Santŏnes (Σάντονοι), to the north of the Garumna, near its mouth, now the departments of Charente inférieure and Charente supérieure.

IV. Lemovices (Λεμοδίκες), to the east of the Pictones and Santones, in what is now the department of Haute Vienne, formerly Limosin.

V. Arverni ('Αρούερνοι), to the southeast of the preceding. They occupied what is now the department of Conèze, and also those of Haute Vienne, Creuze, and Puy de Dôme.

VI. Petrocorii (Πετροκόριοι), to the southwest of the Lemovices, in what used to be called Perigord, but is now the department of Dordogne.

VII. Cadurci (Καδοῦρκοι), to the southeast of the preceding, in what is now the department of Lot.

VIII. Ruteni ('Pουτηνοί), to the southeast of the preceding, in what was formerly Rouergne, but what answers now to portions of the departments of Lot, Tarn, and Aveiron.

(b) Smaller Communities.

The most important of these were, 1. Nitiobriges, on both sides of the Garumna, but especially on the northern side. Their territory answered to what is now the eastern portion of the department of Lot et Garonne, and the southwestern portion of the department of Lot. 2. Gabali or Gabales (Γαβαλεῖς), to the east of the Ruteni. They were a mountaineer race, and principally occupied in working silver mines. Their country answered to portions of the departments of Aveiron, Lozère, and Cantal. 3. Velavi (Οὐελλάϊοι), called by Cæsar Vellauni, to the northeast of the Gabali, and at one time under the dominion of the Arverni, as we are informed by Cæsar and Strabo. They dwelt among the Cevennes (Mons Cebenna), in the modern Velay.

(D.) CITIES OF AQUITANIA.

These may be divided in the same manner as the tribes, namely, 1. Cities between the Pyrenees and the Garumna, and, 2. Cities between the Garumna and the Ligeris.

1. Cities between the Pyrenees and Garumna.

Among the Tarbelli we find, 1. Lapurdum, now Bayonne, in the Tractus Lapurdensis, now Labour. 2. Carasæ, to the southeast of the preceding, called by Cæsar Garites, now Garis. 3. Beneharnum, to the northeast of the preceding, now Lascar. 4. Aquæ Tarbellicæ or Augustæ, on the coast, northwest of Lapurdum, now Dax. 5. Sibusates, to the northeast of Lapurdum, now Sobusse. 6. Atura, called, also, Vicus Julii and Aturres, situate on the Aturis or Adour. It is now Aire. 7. Boii or Boates, in the territory of the Boii, now Tête de Buch. The resin furnished by the pines in this district obtained for the Boii the appellation of "Piceos Boios."

Among the Bituriges Vibisci we find, 1. Burdigăla (Βουρδίγαλα), now Bourdeaux, on the Garumna. It was an import-

ant place in the time of Strabo, who mentions it as the chief trading place of the Bituriges. He describes the town as situate λιμνοθαλάττη τινί, which D'Anville interprets as meaning a place up to which the sea (or tide) flows. The importance of Burdigala is shown by the circumstance of its being made the capital of Aquitania Secunda. Ausonius, a Latin poet of the fourth century, himself a native of this place, has left a description of it in his poem Clara Urbes, or Ordo Nobilium Urbium, and describes it as "renowned for wine, and streams, and the manners and talents of its inhabitants." Under the Romans, Burdigala was not the scene of any important historical event, except the assumption of the purple by Tacitus, in the reign of Gallienus, in the third century. It derives its reputation rather from the zeal with which literature was here cultivated. 2. Novionagus, to the northwest of Burdigala, now Castillon, according to Mannert; but, according to Reichard, Castelnau de Medoc. 3. Serio, to the southeast of Burdigala, now Rions. 4. Varadetum, to the northeast of Burdigala, now Caraye.

Among the Vasates we find Vasatæ, now Bazas, the chief city of this tribe; among the Elusates, the city of Elusa, called by Mela Elusaberris, now Eauze, the capital of this community; among the Auscii, the city of Climberris, or Augusta Ausciorum, now Auch, their capital; among the Bigerrones, their chief city Turba, called in the Notitia Civitas Turba cum castro Bigorra, now Tarbes; and Aquæ Onesiorum, with its baths, now Barrèges; among the Convenæ, the city of Lugdunum Convenarum, now St. Bertrand, already mentioned; Crodunum, now Gourdan, on the upper Garumna; Aquæ Convenarum, now Bagnères; and Aginnum, now Agen, on the right bank of the Garumna.

2. Cities between the Garumna and Ligeris.

Among the *Pictones* we find, 1. *Limōnum*, called, also, *Pictavi*, and now *Poitiers*. It was probably the capital of the tribe. In the Peutinger Table it is called *Lemuno*. Upon the downfall of the western empire this city repeatedly suffered. It was pillaged, A.D. 410, by the Vandals, and subsequently came into the hands of the Visigoths, who extended their dominion over all the countries south and west of the Loire. In

the subsequent invasion of the Visigothic kingdom by Clovis, the vicinity of Poitiers was distinguished by the first of the three great contests that have rendered it the most remarkable battle-field of France. Alaric, king of the Visigoths, was defeated and killed by Clovis at Vouglé, the same with Vouillé, a village on the River Auzance, a few miles west of Poitiers. In A.D. 732, the Saracens were defeated here by Charles Martel, and western Europe was thereby saved from the Mohammedan yoke; and at a later period the memorable battle was fought here between the English and French. 2. Agesinates, the capital of a tribe of the same name, dwelling on the very coast. It is now Lusignan. 3. Rauranum, to the southwest of Limonum, now Raum. 4. Ratiatum, in the northwestern corner, at the mouth of the Ligeris, now Machecou. The pagus Ratiensis is Le pays de Retz.

Among the Santones we have, 1. Mediolānum, afterward Santones, now Saintes. It was the capital of the tribe. 2. Santonum Portus, now Tonnay-Charente, near Rochefort. 3. Sesuvii, now Soubise. 4. Iculisma, now Angoulème. 5. Tamnum, now Mortagne. 6. Novioregum, to the northwest of the preceding, now Royan.

Among the *Petrocorii* we find, 1. *Vesunna*, afterward *Petrocorii*, now *Perigueux*. A tower, part of the remains of the ancient city, is still called *Visonne*, an evident modification of the ancient name, and the suburb in which it stands retains the designation of *La Cité*. This place passed from the hands of the Romans into those of the Visigoths, and subsequently of the Franks. 2. *Bercorates*, now *Bergerac*. 3. *Diolindum*, now *La Linde*.

Among the Cadurci we find, 1. Divona, afterward Cadurci, and now Cahors. Ptolemy calls it $\Delta ov \hat{\eta} \omega va$, and in the Theodosian Table it is Bibona, but Ausonius is considered by D'Anville to have given the true orthography, Divona, a word which, in the Celtic language, denoted a fountain sacred to the gods. On the downfall of the western empire it came successively into the hands of Goths and Franks, and was afterward subjected to the Counts of Toulouse, and then to its own bishop. There are some Roman remains here, the ruins of a theatre and aqueduct, and a monument to M. Lucterius, erected in the reign of Augustus. 2. Uxellodunum, to the north of the preceding, on

the Duranius, now Puèche d'Issolu. 3. Varadetum, now Varaye.

Among the Lemovices we find, 1. Augustoritum, afterward Lemovices (though Cæsar already gives it this latter name), now Limoges, the chief city of the tribe. Under the Romans it was a place of considerable importance, and in the third century it became the seat of a bishopric. It stood at the convergence of several Roman roads. There was an amphitheatre here, said to have been rebuilt by Trajan. In the fifth century this city came into the power of the Visigoths, and was successively pillaged or destroyed by the Franks (twice) and Northmen. 2. Cassinomagus, now Chabannois. 3. Andecamulum, to the northwest of Lemovices, now Rançon. 4. Acitodunum, to the east of the preceding, now Ahun.

Among the Bituriges Cubi we have, 1. Argantomagus, in the southwest angle of their territory, now Argenton. 2. Alerea, to the northeast of the preceding, now St. Vincent d'Ardentes, on the Andria, now Indre, one of the tributaries of the Loire. 3. Noviŏdūnum, now Nouan. 4. Avaricum, afterward Bituriges, now Bourges, the capital of the tribe. In Cæsar's time it was a place of importance, and a strong city, being surrounded on almost every side either by marshes, or by the waters of the Avara or Eure. In the struggle against the Romans, at the head of which was Vercingetorix, near the close of Cæsar's proconsulship, the territory of the Bituriges became the seat of war. Agreeably to the defensive plans of the natives, upon the approach of Cæsar's army, above twenty towns of the Bituriges were given to the flames, and in a general council it was debated whether Avaricum should be burned or defended. It was spared through the entreaties of the Bituriges, who besought the other Gauls not to compel them to destroy a city, almost the finest of all Gaul, and the bulwark and ornament of their state. Contrary to the opinion of Vercingetorix, a stand was made at Avaricum, and a suitable garrison was selected. But the Romans took the city after a siege of twenty-five days, and out of 40,000 persons who had been shut up in the place, scarcely eight hundred escaped to the camp of Vercingetorix. By what degrees Avaricum recovered from this dreadful blow is not known. Augustus made it the capital of Aquitania. It was improved and fortified by the Romans, was taken by the Visigoths, but fell into the hands of the Franks after the victory of Clovis at *Vouillé*.

Among the Arverni we find, 1. Augustonometum, now Clermont, on the River Elaver, now the Allier, and the capital of the tribe. It is not known whether this existed when Cæsar invaded Gaul: it was certainly not the Gergovia, in attacking which he experienced his most considerable check. mentions it under the name of Nεμωσσός. In the Middle Ages, the castle by which the town was defended was named Clarus Mons, and this name, which was at first restricted to the castle, was afterward extended to the whole town, whence the modern appellation. 2. Gergovia. The position of this place has given rise to great difference of opinion, and the difficulty has been increased by the circumstance of there being two places of this name, one among the Boii, and the other in the territory of the Arverni. The latter is supposed, by the best geographical writers, to have been Augustonometum, and D'Anville places its site a few leagues to the southeast of Clermont, between Perignal, Jussat, and Le Crest. After the capture of Avaricum, Cæsar laid siege to this place, but was compelled to raise it after a murderous attempt to storm the city. 3. Brivas, on the Elaver, to the southeast of Augustonometum, now Brioude. 4. Aquæ Calidæ, to the north of Augustonometum, also on the Elaver, now Vichy.

In the country of the Gabali we find, 1. Anderitum, called, also, Civitas Gabalum, now Javoux, among the Cevennes; in the country of the Ruteni we have, 1. Segodunum, or Civitas Rutenorum, now Rhodez; 2. Albiga, or Urbs Albigensis, now Alby.

3. LUGDUNENSIS.

(A.) NAMES.

I. The name Lugdunensis is derived from that of Lugdunum, now Lyons, its capital.

II. This province was also called Gallia Celtica, from its inhabitants, the Celtæ.

(B.) TRIBES OF LUGDUNENSIS.

THESE may be divided into two classes, namely, 1. Tribes between the Ligeris and sea-coast, and, 2. Tribes between the Ligeris, Rhodanus, Arar, and Sequana.

1. Tribes between the Ligeris and Sea-coast.

(a) Larger Communities.

I. Veněti or Venětes (Οὐένετοι), a large and powerful tribe, in a northwestern direction from the mouth of the Ligeris, and on the shores of the ocean. Their country answered to what is now the department of Morbihan, and was formerly a part of Bretagne. The Veneti possessed almost the only havens that offered a secure shelter along a considerable extent of coast, and this advantage, with their superior skill in maritime affairs, enabled them to acquire the sovereignty of the nations which frequented that part of the ocean, and to render them tributary. They used vessels of small draught of water, suited to the shallows which they had to navigate, and which received but little damage when left aground by the receding tide, while their lofty stern and prow, and the general strength of their construction and equipment, enabled them to ride out the tempests to which they were exposed. In these vessels the Veneti carried on a trade with the British islands and with other parts. Their towns and strong-holds were situate on tongues of land running out into the sea, surrounded by banks and shallows, which, being covered by the flood-tide, admitted of no assault by a land force, and, being left dry by the ebb, kept off the attacks of a hostile navy. Confiding in the extensive confederation of which they were the head, in their nautical skill, and in the advantages of their situation, they ventured to bid defiance to Cæsar (B.C. 56); but the extraordinary genius and resources of the Roman general overcame all obstacles, and enabled him to achieve the reduction of the Veneti and their supporters.

II. Rēdones or Rhedones ('Pήδονες), a tribe to the northeast of the Veneti, in what is now the department of Ille et Villaine.

III. Namnētes or Namnētæ (Na $\mu\nu\tilde{\eta}\tau a\iota$), to the southeast of the Veneti, on the right bank of the Ligeris, near its mouth, in what is now a portion of the department of Loire inférieure.

IV. Aulerci, divided into three branches, namely, the Aulerci Cenomani, Aulerci Diablintes, and Aulerci Eburovices (Αὐλίρικοι Ἐβουράϊκοι). The last formed the most powerful division, and occupied what is now the department of Eure.

V. Carnutes, Carnutæ, or Carnuti (Καρνοῦται), called by

Plutarch, in his Life of Cæsar, Kapvoúτινοι, between the Ligeris and Sequana. They occupied what is now the northern portion of the department of Loir, the western portion of that of Loiret, the whole department of Eure et Loir, and the northwestern portion of the department of Seine et l'Oise.

VI. Armoricæ Civitates, the name given in the time of Cæsar to the maritime districts of Celtic Gaul, situated between the mouth of the Ligeris and that of the Sequana. The word is derived from the Celtic ar mor, which means "near the sea." It has been supposed that Armorica was a general appellation for the whole coast of Gaul, and that in Cæsar's time the name became more restricted in its use. Be this as it may, we find in Cæsar's time the Armoric states consisting of the Veneti, Osismii, Curiosolites, Redones, Calētes, &c., who formed a sort of confederacy. Their towns and fortresses were built along the coast, and they carried on a commercial intercourse with the opposite coast of Britain. The maritime districts comprehended under the name of Armoricanus Tractus nearly corresponded in extent to the modern French provinces of Brittany and Normandy.

(b) Smaller Communities.

Following first the line of the coast, up to the mouth of the Sequana, we come in succession to, 1. Coriosopīti or Corisopīti, in what is now the southern portion of the department of Finisterre. 2. Osismii (Σίσμοι), north of the preceding, in the northern portion of the department of Finisterre. 3. Curiosolītes or Curiosolīte, to the east of the preceding, in the northewestern portion of the department of Côtes du Nord. 4. Venēli (Οὐένελοι), called by Cæsar Unelli. Their country ran out into the ocean, and answered to the department of La Manche. The Abrincatui were subject to them. 5. Boiocasses or Baiocasses, and the Viducasses, facing one another, and on opposite sides of the River Argenus, now the Arguenon. They occupied the western portion of the department of Calvados. 6. Lexovii or Lexobii, to the east of the preceding, and in the eastern portion of the department of Calvados.

Proceeding next into the interior of the country, we come to, 1. Andecavi, or, as Cæsar calls them, Andes, immediately north of the Ligeris, and to the east of the Namnetes, in what

is now the department of Mayenne, around Angers. 2. Turones, to the southeast of the preceding, on both sides of the Ligeris, in what was formerly Touraine, but is now the department of Indre et Loire. 3. Aureliani, to the northeast of the preceding, in what was formerly Orleannois, but answers now to the department of Loiret, and a portion of that of Cher. 4. Boii, inhabiting the city and territory of Gergovia, erroneously placed by Pliny between the Carnutes and Senones, but who lived in what is now a portion of the department of Loiret. Their city was called by the Romans Gergovia Boiorum, to distinguish it from Gergovia Arvernorum, which latter lay, as already remarked, southwest of Augustonometum. 5. Aulerci Diablintes, to the northeast of the Redones, around the modern Alençon, in what answers now to the northern portion of the departments of Mayenne and Sarthe, and the southern portion of that of Orne. 6. Essui, supposed by some to be the same with the Saii, to the northeast of the preceding, in the northern portion of the department of Orne, around Seez. 7. Aulerci Cenomani, to the southeast of the preceding, in the department of Sarthe, around Mans.

2. Tribes between the Ligeris, Rhodanus, Arar, and Sequana.

(a) Larger Communities.

I. Segusiani (Σεγουσιανοί), to the northwest of the Allobroges, in what was formerly Lyonnais, but answers now to the department of the Rhone, and the eastern portion of the department of Loir.

II. Ædui (Alδovol), to the north of the preceding, in what answers now to the greater portion of the department of Saône et Loir, the department of Nièvre, and the southern portion of that of Côte d'Or. The Ædui were a powerful nation, and their sway originally extended over many of the adjacent tribes. When Cæsar came into Gaul, however, he found that the Ædui, after having long contended with the Arverni and Sequani for the supremacy, had been overcome by them, the Arverni and Sequani having called in Ariovistus, a powerful king of the Germans, to their aid. The arrival of the Roman commander soon changed the aspect of affairs, and the Ædui were restored by the Roman arms to the chief power in Gaul. They became, of course, valuable allies for Cæsar in his Gallic conquests.

Eventually, however, they embraced the party of Vercingetorix against Rome; but, when the insurrection was quelled, they were still favorably treated from motives of policy, and on account of their former services.

III. Lingones (Λίγγονες), to the north of the Ædui, in what answers now to the northern portion of the department of Côte & Or, the southern portion of the departments of Aube and Haute Marne, and the northern portion of that of Haute Saône.

IV. Senones ($\Sigma \acute{e}\nu\omega\nu e\varsigma$ and $\Sigma \acute{e}\nu\sigma\nu e\varsigma$), to the northeast of the Lingones, in what answers now to the southern portion of the departments of Seine et Oise and Seine et Marne, and the western portion of the department of Aube. The old stem of the Senones, of which these appear to have been a branch, under the conduct of Brennus, invaded Italy at an early period, and pillaged Rome. They afterward settled in Umbria, on the coast of the Adriatic.

(b) Smaller Communities.

These lay principally on the right, and in part, also, on the left bank of the Sequana, and were most of them border tribes as regarded the province of Gallia Belgica. We find in this enumeration, 1. Caletes or Caleti ($Ka\lambda\tilde{\eta}\tau a\iota$), to the north of the Sequana, at its mouth, in what is now the department of Seine inférieure, and the northern portion of the department of Eure. 2. Bellocasses or Vellocasses, to the southeast of the preceding, and on the right bank of the Sequana, in what is now the northeastern portion of the departments of Eure and Seine. 3. Parisii, on both the right and left banks of the Sequana, in the northeastern portion of the department of Seine et Oise, and the southwestern portion of that of Seine et Marne. 4. Meldi, to the east of the preceding, in the eastern portion of the department of Seine et Marne. 5. Tricasses or Tricasii (Τρικάσιοι), to the southeast of the preceding, in the department of Aube. 6. A branch of the Boii, on the southwestern flank of the Ædui, may be here mentioned, lying in a southwest direction from the Sequana, and in the vicinity of the Ligeris. Their country answered to the modern Beaujolais. 7. Ambarri, in the angle between the Arar and Rhodanus, in the department of Ain.

(B.) CITIES OF LUGDUNENSIS.

THESE may be divided into two classes, namely, 1. Cities between the northern bank of the Ligeris, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Sequana, and, 2. Cities between the Ligeris, Rhodanus, Arar, Sequana, and Matrona.

1. Cities between the northern bank of the Ligeris, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Sequana.

In the territory of the Veneti we find, 1. Dariorigon (Δαριόριγον), called, also, Darioritum and Civitas Venetorum. It
was the capital of the tribe, and is commonly identified by geographers with the modern Vannes; but, as Cæsar has particularly described the situation of the towns of the Veneti, on
tongues of land insulated at high water, it has been suggested
by the historians of Bretagne (Lobineau and Morice) that the
site of Dariorigon could not be identical with that of Vannes;
and D'Anville, who adopts the suggestion, is inclined to place
Dariorigon on the shore of the Bay of Morbihan, about three
miles from Vannes, called still Durouec. 2. Blavia, further
west, now Port Louis, on the River Blavet.

In the territory of the Corisopiti we find Corisopiti, their capital, now Quimper-Corentin; in the territory of the Osismii, their capital Vorganium, now Corlay; in that of the Curiosolita, their capital of the same name, now Corsenil; in that of the Redones, 1. Civitas Redonum, their capital, now Rennes. 2. Aletum, to the northwest of the preceding, near St. Malo. The site of Aletum is marked by a headland in the vicinity of St. Malo, which the Bretons still call Guich Alet. The inhabitants of Aletum were, it seems, continually exposed in the eighth or ninth century to the attacks of pirates, and therefore retired to a neighboring rocky peninsula, on which they founded the town of St. Malo, from the name of the then Bishop of Aletum.

In the territory of the *Abrincatui* we find *Ingena*, afterward called *Abrincatui*, their capital city, and now *Avranches*, the intermediate form of the name having been *Abrinca*. As being in Normandy, Avranches was under the dominion of the first English monarchs of the Norman and Plantagenet races, and was considered as one of the bulwarks of Normandy against

the Bretons. It was also the seat of a diocese, and among those who held this see in modern times was the celebrated divine and scholar, Peter Daniel Huet.

In the territory of the *Unelli* or *Veneti* we have *Coriallum*, now *Cherbourg*. According to Troissard, this place was founded by Cæsar when he invaded Britain, but by others it is denied that Cæsar ever visited this portion of Gaul. The modern name, however, is a corruption, according to some, of Cæsaroburgus or Cæsaris Burgus. In the territory of the *Baiocasses* we have *Arægenus*, afterward *Baiocasses*, now *Bayeux*. In the territory of the *Lexobii* we have *Noviomagus*, afterward *Lexobii*, now *Lisieux*. In the territory of the *Aulerci Eburovices* we have *Mediolanum Aulercorum*, afterward *Eburovices*, now *Evreux*.

In the territory of the Namnetes we have, 1. Brivates Portus (Βριονάτης λιμήν). D'Anville seeks to identify this with the modern Brest. But if D'Anville's hypothesis be correct, Ptolemy must have very much misplaced this harbor, for the Greek geographer states that it was between the mouth of the Liger and the Herius (the modern Auray). D'Anville also thinks that this place is mentioned in the Theodosian Table under the name of Gesocribate, or, as he would correct it, Gesobricate or Gesobrivate, a name which, in its Celtic signification of "great harbor or roadstead," is sufficiently appropriate to Brest. However this may be, there is no reason to believe that it was a place of any great importance in Roman times, and subsequently it appears to have sunk into complete obscurity. 2. Corbilo $(Ko\rho\delta(\lambda\omega\nu))$, a commercial place, with an extensive traffic, on the Liger, at its mouth. It is mentioned by both Strabo and Polybius, and answers probably to the modern Covéron. 3. Condivienum, afterward Namnetum Portus or Namnetes, now Nantes, on the north bank of the Liger, near its mouth, and the capital of the tribe. In the ninth and tenth centuries it was six times pillaged and burned by the Northmen, and continued desolate for thirty years.

In the territory of the Andes or Andecavi we have Juliomagus, afterward Andecavi, now Angers, the capital of the tribe. In the territory of the Carnutes we have Autricum, afterward Carnutes, and now Chartres, the capital of the tribe. It suffered subsequently in the civil dissensions of the Merovingian

kings, and from the ravages of the Northmen, by whom it was pillaged and burned in 858. In the Middle Ages it was the capital of a county, which was in the tenth century united with that of Blois and Tours. In the territory of the *Turones* we have *Casarodunum*, afterward called *Turones*, on the River Ligeris, and now *Tours*. It was subsequently included in the kingdom of the Visigoths, from whom it was taken (A.D. 507) by Clovis, king of the Franks. In the feudal period it came, about the middle of the tenth century, into the hands of the Counts of Blois.

In the territory of the Aureliani we have Genăbum, afterward Aureliani, now Orleans. Some scholars are in favor of identifying Genabum with the modern Gien, but the opinion of D'Anville and the best geographers is decidedly opposed to this. As the Aureliani were, in fact, a branch of the Carnutes, Genabum is often ealled by writers a town of the latter people. It was a place of considerable trade, situate on the Ligeris, and was the scene of the outbreak of the great revolt of the Gauls against Cæsar, in the seventh year of his command. In consequence of the massacre made here on this occasion of the Romans who were residing at the place for commercial purposes, Cæsar, early in the ensuing spring, attacked the town, which he plundered and burned. It seems to have recovered from this disaster, and in the time of Strabo was again the emporium or trading town of the Carnutes. In A.D. 451 it successfully resisted Attila, and subsequently it passed into the hands of the Franks, and became the eapital of one of the kingdoms into which their territories were so often divided. Some writers maintain that Genabum received the name of Aureliani from the Emperor Aurelian, but there is no proof whatever of this, and if it had been the ease, Genabum must have appeared under the name of Aureliani in the Antonine Itinerary.

2. Cities between the Ligeris, Rhodanus, Arar, Sequana, and Matrona.

In the territory of the Segusiani we have, 1. Forum Segusianorum, on the Ligeris, now Feurs. 2. Lugdunum, now Lyons, at the confluence of the Rhodanus and the Arar, or Saône. According to the common opinion, Lugdunum was founded by L. Munatius Plancus, commander of the legions in Gaul

at the time of Cæsar's death, who settled here the people of Vienna, now Vienne, when they had been driven from their own home by a revolt of the Allobroges, about 42 B.C. seems improbable, however, that a situation so advantageous should have been entirely neglected by the Gauls; and the Celtic name given to the place prevents our ascribing its origin wholly to Plancus. Cæsar does not mention Lugdunum, which has furnished one of the reasons for denying to the town any higher antiquity than the time of Plancus; but the reason seems altogether insufficient. According to Menestrier, in his history of this city, the Roman colony of Plancus was not established at Lugdunum until about thirty years after the settlement of the Viennenses here. Augustus was in Gaul about the time when, according to the more correct opinion just stated, Plancus established his colony, and he appears to have made Lugdunum his place of residence for some time, an indication of the rising importance of the place. Strabo, writing a few years afterward, describes it as the most populous city of Gaul except Narbo Martius. It was, in fact, the great mart of the Romans, who had here, even at that early time, a mint for coining gold and silver money, and it gave name, as we have seen, to one of the four great divisions of Gaul. An altar was erected here by sixty of the nations of Gaul, by common consent, in honor of Augustus. Both Tiberius and Caligula appear to have favored the town. The latter visited it, and instituted games professedly in honor of Augustus, about A.D. 40. Emperor Claudius, himself a native of Lugdunum, raised it from the rank of a municipium to that of a colony in the strictest sense of the term, and regulated its local government. its greatness received soon after a terrible blow: it was utterly destroyed in a single night by fire, originating, it has been conjectured, from lightning, about A.D. 59, according to some, but, according to other calculations, about A.D. 64 or 65. The rebuilding of the city was promoted by a grant from the Emperor Nero, to whom the citizens manifested their affection and fidelity on his downfall. In the contest between Albinus and Severus, Lugdunum became the scene of conflict. In an engagement near this place, Albinus was totally defeated and slain (A.D. 197), and Lugdunum, which had afforded a retreat for the vanquished, was pillaged by the victor, who put most of

the inhabitants to the sword, and burned the town. At a subsequent period, while Julian held the government of Gaul under Constantius, the environs of Lugdunum were ravaged, and the place nearly captured by the Allemanni. In the beginning of the fifth century it fell into the hands of the Burgundians. Lugdunum, during the Roman period, occupies a considerable place in ecclesiastical history also. The Gospel had been early introduced into this part of Gaul, and here a severe persecution raged in the reign of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus (A.D. 172 or 177). The churches of Vienna (Vienne) and Lugdunum sent a relation of their sufferings to those of Asia and Phrygia. This account, ascribed by some to Irenæus, is written with simplicity and beauty, and is one of the most affecting passages in the ancient history of Christianity. Pothinus, bishop of Lugdunum, and perhaps the person who introduced the Gospel into these regions, was one of the martyrs in this persecution. His successor was Irenæus, one of the most eminent of the early fathers.

In the territory of the Ædui we find, 1. Cabillonum or Caballinum (Καβαλλίνον), on the Arar, now Châlons-sur-Saône. In the great revolt under Vercingetorix, many Romans, who were here, were obliged to guit the place, and many were slain in the assaults which they had to sustain, after their departure, from the insurgent populace. Cæsar writes the name Cabillonum, while Strabo has Καθυλλίνον. The form Καθαλλίνον is given by Ptolemy. Ammianus Marcellinus, who wrote about the period of the downfall of the empire, mentions this place as one of the ornaments of the province of Lugdunensis, and gives to its name the form Cabillones. From the singular form of the ancient name, it was usual for a long time to write the modern appellation without an s, Châlon, by which, when D'Anville wrote, it was distinguished from Chalons-sur-Marne, the ancient Durocatalauni. It is now, however, usually written with the final sibilant. This place contains the ruins of a Roman amphitheatre. 2. Bibracte, to the northwest of the preceding. There is a great difference of opinion among geographers whether Bibracte was identical with Augustodunum, now Autun, on the Arrosius, now Arrou, one of the tributaries of the Ligeris, and many of them place its site on Mount Beuvrai, the ancient Mons Bifractus, some miles to the west of Autun.

But as this mountain is steep and precipitous on every side, and its summit affords an area too small for a populous city like Bibracte, it is most probable that the citadel was on this mountain, and the town at its foot, and that, as this quarter was often desolated in war, the inhabitants eventually migrated to the spot where Autun now stands, and built a new city. This new city was made a Roman colony by Augustus, whose name it took, combining with it the termination dunum, from the Celtic dun, "a hill." Cæsar calls Bibracte by far the greatest and wealthiest town belonging to the Ædui, and says that it possessed the greatest influence among them. Augustodunum, in the third century, suffered much from the ravages of war, and it was taken by Tetricus, one of the so-called "Thirty Tyrants." From the effects of this severe blow it was raised by the patronage of Constantius Chlorus and his son Constantine the Great, from whom it received much kindness. gratitude to these princes, whose family name was Flavius, the town took the name of Flavia. Upon the downfall of the Roman power the town was reduced to ashes by Attila, king of the Huns, and afterward came successively into the hands of the Burgundians and Franks. In the time of Charles Martel (about A.D. 730), when the Saracens invaded France, they took and burned Autun, and it was again pillaged by the Northmen in 894. We have followed Ukert in making Bibracte distinct from Augustodunum. D'Anville, however, is of the opposite opinion. 3. Alesia, to the north of the preceding, in the territory of the Mandubii, a tribe dependent on the Ædui. was so ancient a city that Diodorus Siculus ascribes the building of it to Hercules. The Celtæ regarded the place as the "hearth and metropolis of Gallia Celtica" (ἐστίαν καὶ μητρόπο- $\lambda \iota \nu$ Κελτικής), a sufficient proof in itself of the antiquity of the settlement. Alesia was situate on a high hill, now Mount Auxois, washed on two sides by the small rivers Lutosa and Ozera, now the Lose and Ozerain. It remained free until Cæsar's time, who took it after a memorable siege, during which he was himself besieged in his own lines by an army of about 300,000 Gauls, but whom he defeated with very heavy loss to them. According to Florus, Cæsar burned the town. If so, however, it must have been soon rebuilt, for it became a place of considerable consequence under the Roman emperors. It

was laid in ruins in the ninth century by the Northmen. At the present day there is a small town or village at the base of Mount Auxois, called Le bourg de Sainte-Reine, the upper part of which still retains the name of Alise. 4. Noviodunum, to the west of Bibracte, near the confines of the Bituriges Cubi. It was situate on the River Niveris, now the Nièvre, at its junction with the Ligeris. The name Noviodunum became subsequently changed to Nivernum, from that of the river, and is now Nevers. This was a place of little importance until the reign of Clovis, in whose time it belonged to the Burgundians.

In the territory of the Lingönes we find, 1. Andomatunum, their capital, afterward Lingones, and now Langres. It was a place of great importance under the Romans, and many antiquities have been found here. There yet remain the ruins of two triumphal arches, one erected to Probus, the other to Constantius Chlorus. This city suffered severely in the invasion of Gaul by the barbarous tribes which overthrew the Roman empire. 2. Dibio, in the southeastern angle of the country, and near the confines of the Ædui. It is now Dijon. An ancient legend, attested by Gregory of Tours, relates that the Emperor Aurelian made Dibio a considerable fortress: other legends seem to confound Aurelian with Marcus Aurelius, who lived a century before. This place passed in the fifth century into the hands of the Burgundians, and subsequently of the Franks.

In the territory of the Senones we find, 1. Agendicum, which Ptolemy writes 'Αγηδικόν, Agedicum, while in the Antonine Itinerary it is Agedincum. It was afterward called Senones, being the capital city, and is now Sens. Some antiquaries dispute the identity of Agedincum with Senones, and contend that the former corresponds to the modern Provins, but this opinion does not appear to be well sustained. The town was situate on the right bank of the Icauna, the modern Yonne. 2. Antesiodurum or Antissiodurum, to the southeast of the preceding, on the left bank of the Icauna, and now Auxerre. It was in the country of the Senones, but by a division of that territory acquired a district of its own. The line of demarcation between the former dioceses of Sens and Auxerre (now incorporated together) is supposed to have coincided with the

frontier of this district. The bishopric of Auxerre is said to be as ancient as the third century, its first bishop having been St. Peregrin, who was put to death in the reign of Aurelian, A.D. 273. 3. Vellaunodunum, to the southwest of Agedineum, and near the confines of the Aureliani, now Beaune, according to D'Anville; others, less correctly, are in favor of Chateau Landon, or Chateau Renard. In the time of the Carlovingian kings of France the district was known by the name of Pagus Belnisus. 4. Melodunum, to the northwest of Agedineum, on the River Sequana, and now Melun. Cæsar describes it as situated on an island, in the same manner as Lutetia or Paris. It was taken by Labienus, Cæsar's lieutenant, in his campaign against the Parisii. It was also a place of note in the earlier times of the French monarchy, and was repeatedly taken by both the Northmen and the English. The modern town is built for the most part on a slope on the right bank of the Seine. of an old castle still remain on the island in which the old Celtic town stood. In the opinion of the best modern authorities, Melodunum was the same place with the Metiosedum mentioned in the text of Cæsar, and in all probability this latter name is merely a false reading for the former.

In the territory of the *Tricassii*, or *Tricasses*, we find, 1. Augustobona, afterward *Tricasses*, or *Tricassae*, now *Troyes*, their chief city, situate on the Sequana. Ptolemy writes the name Αὐγονστόβανα. The form *Tricassae* was, at a still later period, changed to *Trecae*, from the oblique cases of which the modern name has been derived. This city was plundered by the Northmen, A.D. 889. In the feudal period it was the capital of the important country of *Troyes*, or *Champagne*. 2. *Corobilium*, to the northeast of the preceding, on the Sequana, now *Corbeille*. Some write the name *Corbelium*, and make *Corobilium* a town of the *Catalauni*, the site of which is found, as they maintain, near the modern village of *St. Ouen*. But this is an error.

In the territory of the *Meldi* we find, 1. *Iatinum* (Ἰάτινον), their capital, afterward called *Meldi*, and now *Meaux*. It was situated on the *Alba*, now *Aube*, one of the tributaries of the *Matrona*. The Peutinger Table calls it *Fixtuinum*. In the early history of the Franks it was a place of considerable consequence. 2. *Calāgum*, to the southeast of the preceding, now *Chailly*.

In the territory of the Parisii we have Lutetia Parisiorum, their chief city, afterward Parisii, and now Paris. This place is mentioned by Cæsar, in whose time it was already the capital of the tribe. In that part of the Seine which now traverses Paris were anciently five small islands, on one of which, now the island of La Cité, stood Lutetia. This island was then of smaller dimensions than at present, two smaller islands at its western extremity having been incorporated with it. Lutetia, antecedent to the Roman conquest, was an unwalled place. The etymology of the name of the Parisii has been much disputed. Dulaure conjectures that it meant "inhabitants of the frontier." A British tribe, in the neighborhood of Hull, in Yorkshire, had the same designation. In B.C. 54, Cæsar convoked at Lutetia an assembly of the nations of Gaul. In the general rebellion of the Gallic tribes the following year, Lutetia was burned by the Gauls to prevent its falling into the hands of the Romans; but it subsequently came with the rest of Gaul into their power. For the next four centuries the place is hardly noticed, except by geographers, by whom the name is variously written; nor does it appear to have been of any importance until the later period of the Roman dominion. It took the name of the tribe to which it belonged about A.D. 358 or 360. It was the seat of a bishopric as early as the middle of the third century. Lutetia was the favorite residence of Julian while he governed the provinces of Gaul with the rank of Cæsar. In or about the year 494 it was taken by the Franks under Clovis. Under the Romans the buildings connected with the town extended beyond the island to both banks of the river.

In the territory of the *Velocasses*, or *Bellocassi*, we have *Rotomagus*, now *Rouen*. The name is variously written, *Rotomagus*, *Rothomagus*, *Ratomagus*, &c., and in Ammianus Marcellinus we have the plural form *Rotomagi*. This name remained when most other capitals had their own proper designation superseded by that of the people to whom they respectively belonged, and was subsequently shortened into *Rotomum* or *Rodomum*, whence the modern appellation *Rouen*. In the early history of France, Rouen appears as the scene of some of the cruelties of Fredegonde. It suffered much from the incursions of the Northmen, whose capital it eventually became,

when, by virtue of the treaty between Rollo and Charles the Simple (A.D. 911 or 912), they settled in this part of France.

3. BELGICA.

(A.) NAME.

I. The name *Belgica* was given to this province from that of the Belgæ, the ruling race in this quarter, who, in Cæsar's time, formed one of the three great divisions of Gaul.

II. The Belgæ, as has already been remarked, were of mixed Celtic and Germanic blood, several German tribes having from time to time crossed over, and either driven portions of the Belgæ back into the interior, or else having become amalgamated with them.

III. The province of Belgica, as settled by Augustus, was, as before remarked, much more extensive than the ancient territory of the Belgæ, and contained within its limits three different stems or races, namely, 1. Belgæ, of mixed Celtic and German blood; 2. Batāvi, of pure German origin; 3. Sequani and Helvetii, of pure Celtic extraction.

IV. We will now proceed to speak of these three races in order, describing in succession the communities into which they were respectively subdivided, and giving some account of the cities of each.

1. OF THE BELGÆ.

1. Larger Communities.

I. Bellöväci.—In the time of Julius Cæsar the Bellovaci were distinguished among the Belgic Gauls for number, valor, and influence, and took an active part in the resistance to the Roman arms, when these were first carried into this part of the country. They agreed to contribute 60,000 men to the confederate army of natives, but the skill and perseverance of the Romans triumphed over all opposition, and the Bellovaci, with their neighbors, had to submit to a foreign yoke. Their territory answered to what is now, in a great measure, the departments of Oise and Somme.

II. Menapii, a numerous tribe, occupying originally all the country between the Mosa, or Meuse, and the Rhine, and in Cæsar's time having settlements even on the eastern side of the last-mentioned river. They were subsequently, however,

compelled to retire from the banks of the Rhine, when the Ubii and Sicambri, nations from the interior of Germany, were settled by the Romans on the western side of the Rhine. From a passage of Tacitus we learn that, in later times, the settlements of this tribe were along the lower Meuse.

III. Nervii, a very powerful tribe, claiming to be of German origin, who dwelt in what used to be the French departments of Lys, Nord, Sambre et Meuse, Ardennes, or in Hennegan, &c., on both banks of the Sambre, the ancient Sabis. Casar names among their dependents or clients the smaller tribes of the Centrones, Grudii, Levāci, Pleumoxii, and Geidūni. Their original capital was Bagacum, now Bavay, but afterward Camarācum, now Cambray, and Turnācum, now Tournay, became their chief cities toward the end of the fourth century. After subjecting the Suessiones, the Bellovaci, and the Ambiani, Cæsar marched against the Nervii. A desperate battle was fought on the banks of the Sabis, in which the Nervii actually surprised the Roman soldiers while in the act of tracing and intrenching their camp, and came very near defeating the latter. The scale was only turned at length by the valor of the tenth legion. The Nervii fought desperately to the last, and their nation and name, says Casar, were nearly extinguished on that day. It was reported that, out of 60,000 fighting men, only five hundred remained. Cæsar restored their territory and towns to the remnant of the nation, and they appear subsequently to have become a considerable people. We find them frequently serving, at a later day, among the Roman forces.

IV. Trevěri or Trevěri, a powerful tribe, claiming to be of German origin like the Nervii, and dwelling on both sides of the Mosella, from the Mosa to the Rhine. Their chief town was Augusta Treverorum, now Trèves. Their territory answered to what used to be the French departments of the Meuse, Moselle, the department of the Sarthe toward the north, and the southern part of that of Luxembourg.

2. Smaller Communities.

1. Ambiāni, on the east coast, along both banks of the Samara, now the Somme, in what is now the department of Somme. Their territory lay between that of the Bellovaci, Veroman-

dui, and Atrebates. 2. Morini, also on the coast, between the Ambiani and Nervii, and to the northwest of the Atrebates. Their name is derived from the Celtic mor, "the sea," and has Their territory answers now to a reference to their situation. portion of the department of Pas de Calais. 3. Atrebates, to the southeast of the preceding, in what answers now to the eastern portions of the two departments of Pas de Calais and This tribe were famed for their manufactures of woollen goods even in Roman times, and the cloak or sagum that was made here was held in high esteem at Rome. 4. Toxiandri, to the south of the earlier settlement of the Menapii, in what answers to the modern Seeland and northern Flanders. 5. Eburones, to the south of the Toxiandri, in what is now the Netherland province of Limburg, around Hasselt. 6. Aduatici or Atuatici, the same, probably, with the Tungri of Tacitus and Ammianus Marcellinus, or else the Tungri, a German tribe, and the first that crossed the Rhine, became amalgamated with them. Their territory answered in some degree to the present Netherland provinces of Lüttich and Namur. 7. Veromandui, to the southeast of the Atrebates, in the northern portion of the department of Aisne, and the western portion of that of Ardennes. Ptolemy calls them 'Pομάνδυες. 8. Suessiones, to the south of the preceding, and southwest of the Remi, in the middle portion of the departments of Oise and Aisne, and in the northern portion of the department of Marne. 9. Catalauni, to the south of the Remi, in the southern portion of the department of Marne, and the western portion of that of the Meuse. 10. Mediomatrici, to the south of the Treveri, in the department of the Moselle. 11. Leuci, to the south of the preceding, in the northeastern portion of the department of Haute Marne, the northwestern of that of Vosges, and the southern portions of those of Meuse and Meurthe.

CITIES OF THE BELGÆ.

Cities belonging to the Ambiani, Morini, and Nervii.

In the territory of the Ambiani we find, 1. Samarobriva, on the Samara, now the Somme, the chief city of the tribe, called afterward Ambiani, and now Amiens. 2. Ambiliati, now Abbeville.

In the territory of the Morini we find, 1. Taruenna or Teruanna, now Terouenne. 2. Gessoriacum, afterward Bononia, now Boulogne. Mela mentions this place under its name of Gessoriacum, and the manner in which he speaks of it implies that it was of Gallic origin, and it was in his time the place of greatest note on that coast. After Mela mention is also made of it by Pliny and Ptolemy, the latter of whom calls it Tigooριακον ἐπίνειον. Some writers, and among them Montfaucon and Cluverius, have endeavored to show that Boulogne was the Portus Itius from which Cæsar embarked for Britain, but their opinion is rejected by D'Anville, who agrees with Du Cange and Cambden in fixing the Portus Itius at Witsand or Wissan, a small town near Cap de Griz Nez. Gessoriacum became, under the Romans, the chief port of embarkation for Britain. Here, D'Anville thinks, was the tower erected by Caligula when he marched to the coast of Gaul in order to invade Britain; and the Emperor Claudius, according to Suetonius, embarked here for that island. The port in Britain with which a communication was chiefly maintained was Rutupia, now Richborough, near Sandwich. About the time of the Emperor Constantine, the name Bononia was substituted for that of Gessoriacum, and the latter is not used by Ammianus Marcellinus, Eutropius, and other writers of a later period. appears to have been one of the Roman naval stations. Carausius was proclaimed emperor by the legions in Britain, he possessed himself of Bononia, which was, in consequence, besieged and taken by Cæsar Constantius Chlorus, father of Constantine the Great, and the capture of the place proved the occasion of a serious detriment to it. In the fifth century Bononia is said to have been unsuccessfully attacked by Attila, king of the Huns, and in the ninth century it was laid waste by the Northmen, who had landed in the neighborhood. the discovery of a ring to which the cables of vessels were fastened, it is thought that the sea flowed up as far as the present upper town of Boulogne, in which case Gessoriacum must have been at the bottom of a small bay.

3. Itius Portus, or Iccius Portus, just above Bononia, and now Witsand, or Wissan, a small town near Cap de Griz Nez. This port was famous as having been the one where Cæsar embarked on his invasion of Britain, and has already been re-

ferred to in the previous article. 4. Castellum Morinorum, to the east of Bononia, now Montcassel. 5. Ulterior Portus. This was a harbor eight miles east of Itius Portus, according to Cæsar, and is mentioned by him in the account of his invasion of Britain. It is supposed to have been either where Calais now stands, or near to it. Ukert places it at Gravelines.

In the territory of the Nervii we have, 1. Grudii, now Groede, in Western Flanders. 2. Turnācum, in the interior, now Tournay, on the Scaldis, or Scheldt. This place was one of the chief cities of the tribe. It is mentioned by St. Jerome in the beginning of the fifth century as being among the places which had been seized by the barbarians who overran Gaul. It was among the early acquisitions of the Franks, and was the capital of the as yet infant empire of Clovis. 3. Camarācum, now Cambray, also on the Scaldis, and to the south of the preceding. This place rose to notice in the latter period of the Roman empire, and is mentioned in both the Antonine Itinerary and the Theodosian Table. In the Notitia Provinciarum it appears as one of the chief cities of the tribe, Turnacum being the other. In the infancy of the Frankish monarchy, Cambray is said to have been the capital of Clodion, the son of Pharamond, A.D. 427-448, and to have given title to his kingdom. Charlemagne fortified it, and Charles the Bald ceded it to the bishops, by whom the sovereignty of it was long retained. 4. Bagācum, to the northeast of the preceding, now Bavay. This was the original capital of the Nervii, but was superseded toward the end of the fourth century by Turnacum and Camaracum. The importance of the place, however, is testified by the fact that the Romans brought water to it across the valley of the Sabis, now Sambre, by means of an aqueduct, from springs distant ten or eleven miles. Bavay is at the junction of several Roman roads, which traversed the surrounding country. According to some, Bagacum was destroyed by the barbarians toward the end of the fourth century, and it was on this account that Turnacum and Camaracum rose into importance. The name was variously written, Bagacum in the Antonine Itinerary, Baganum by Ptolemy, and Basiacum, Bavacum, and Bacacum in later authorities. In the Middle Ages the place was a mere castle.

Cities in the Interior, between the Tribes just mentioned and the River Mosa.

In the territory of the Bellovaci we find, 1. Cæsaromāgus, the capital of the tribe (Καισαρόμαγος), afterward Bellovaci, and now Beauvais. Several writers of great learning, Sanson, Scaliger, and Valesius, have considered that Bratuspantium, the town into which the Bellovaci retreated with their effects on Cæsar's approach, was identical with Cæsaromagus, and D'Anville himself was at first of the same opinion, though he afterward made the site of Bratuspantium to be in the neighborhood of Breteuil, in Picardie. 2. Bratuspantium, just referred to in the preceding sentence.

In the territory of the Suessiones we find, 1. Augusta Suessionum, the capital of the tribe, afterward Suessiones, now Soissons. D'Anville, Dulaure, and others are disposed to identify Augusta Suessionum with the Noviodunum of Cæsar, but this opinion does not seem consistent with Cæsar's narrative. In the "Notitia Imperii" it is recorded that there was at Augusta a government manufactory of shields, balistæ, and armor for the cavalry, called Clibanarii or Cataphracti (fabrica scutaria, balistaria, et clibanaria). In the later period of the Roman dominion, this city was one of the most important places in northern Gaul, and one of the last which remained under the government of the emperors. It was also the seat of government of Ægidius and his son Syagrius, and near it the latter was defeated by Clovis. Under the early Frankish princes it continued to be of importance, and was the seat of Here Clovis espoused Clotilde; and, upon the a bishopric. division of his dominions among his descendants, it gave name to one of the kingdoms formed out of them. 2. Fines, or Fima, on the boundary line between the Suessiones and Remi, now Fisme, in Champagne.

In the territory of the Veromandui we find, 1. Augusta Veromanduorum, the capital of the tribe, now St. Quentin. The oldest quarter of the town has retained, down to modern times, the name of Aouste. 2. Verbinum, to the east of the preceding, now Vervins.

In the territory of the Atrebates we find, 1. Nemetacum, the capital of the tribe, afterward Atrebates, and now Arras. Not

only the modern name of the place, but that, also, of the country, Artois, is a corruption of the ancient name of the race. It appears from the writings of St. Jerome, who lived during the close of the fourth century and the beginning of the fifth, that in his time it was a manufacturing town, and had been pillaged by the barbarians. 2. Helena, mentioned by Sidonius Apollinaris, and now probably Lens.

In the territory of the Aduatici we find Aduatica, afterward Tungri, now Tongres. In the earlier settlements of the Menapii, near the Scaldis, before they were driven south by German tribes, we find Castellum Menapiorum, now Kessel, on the Meuse.

Cities in the Interior, belonging to the Condrusi, Remi, Treveri, Medromatrici, Leuci, &c.

In the territory of the *Condrusi* we find, 1. Fons Tungrorum, now Spaa, the medicinal waters of this place being known to the Romans. 2. Marcomăgus, now Markmagen.

In the territory of the Remi we find, 1. Durocortorum, afterward Remi, the chief city of the tribe, now Rheims. place is mentioned by Cæsar, in whose time it was already an important city. Strabo writes the name Δουρικόρτορα. It was at the convergence of several military roads, according to the Antonine Itinerary and Peutinger Table. Under the Roman sway, Durocortorum was the most important place in Belgica Secunda, and was distinguished by its literary character. Cornelius Fronto, a rhetorician of the time of Hadrian, has compared it to Athens, an indication, making allowance for rhetorical exaggeration, of its high reputation in this respect. In A.D. 494, this city, then in the hands of the Franks, by whom it had been occupied after the death of Syagrius, was the scene of the baptism of Clovis and the chief lords of his court, after his victory at Tolbiac. In the civil troubles of the ninth and tenth centuries it was repeatedly besieged, and twice, at least, taken and plundered. In 1179 it was signalized by the consecration of Philippe Auguste, and, with a few exceptions, all the succeeding monarchs of France have also been consecrated at this place. 2. Axuenna, now Vienne la Ville, on the Aisne, the ancient Axona.

In the territory of the Treveri we find, 1. Antunacum or An-

dernacum, now Andernach, a Roman station. It was famed at a later day for the victory gained here by Louis the German over Charles the Bald. 2. Confluentes, now Coblenz, at the confluence of the Mosella and Rhenus, whence it derived its names of Confluentes, Confluentia, or Confluens. This last was originally the name of a castle erected by Drusus on the right bank of the Mosella. 3. Ambitarinus Vicus, on the Rhine, above Confluentes, where the Emperor Caligula was born. ville and others write the name Ambiatinus Vicus, but the other form is the more correct one. Ukert makes this place to have been in the vicinity of the modern Reuse; Cluver declares for Capelle. 4. Noviomägus, on the Mosella, now Neumagen. 5. Augusta Trevirorum, called afterward Treviri, and now Trèves, or, as it is called in German, Trier, the capital of the tribe, on the right bank of the Mosella. When Julius Cæsar was in Gaul, the Treviri were a powerful people, and their capital even then a place of importance. No credit, however, is to be given to the hyperbolical inscription put up in modern times, and which states that this city was built 1300 years before Rome! In later times Treves was the residence of the emperors Constantius, Constantine the Great, Julian, Valentinian, Valens, Gratian, and Theodosius, and was so eminent for its commerce, manufactures, wealth, and extent, that Ausonius calls it the second metropolis of the empire. It was nearly annihilated by the Huns, the Goths, and the Vandals, vet subsequently almost recovered its ancient splendor under the Archbishops of Treves, some of whom maintained large armies, which they occasionally led to the field in person, and greatly enlarged their dominions, so that they obtained considerable political influence in Germany.

In the territory of the Catalauni we find Durocatelauni, called afterward Catalauni, on the right bank of the Matrona, and now Châlons sur Marne. It was the capital of the tribe. The prefix Duro, in the name of the place, is of Celtic origin, and means "water," indicating, in the present instance, the position of the city on the banks of a river. Near this place (A.D. 271) Aurelius defeated the army of Tetricus. In a subsequent age it was marked by another memorable conflict. In the year 451, Attila, at the head of the Huns, who had invaded Gaul, was defeated by the combined forces of the Romans and

Visigoths under Aetius and Theodoric. D'Anville conjectures that the ancient name of the town was originally in the singular form *Durocatalaunum*.

In the territory of the *Virodunenses* we find *Virodunum*, now *Verdun*. Gregory of Tours writes the name *Viredunum*, and other writers of the Middle Ages have *Viridunum* and *Virdunum*. In the Middle Ages it was included in the Germanic empire, of which its bishops were princes.

In the territory of the *Mediomatrici* we find *Divodurum*, afterward *Mediomatrici*, for which last was substituted, early in the fifth century, the shorter designation of *Mettis* or *Metis*, whence the modern name *Metz*. It was the capital of the tribe. In the civil dissensions which followed the death of Nero, A.D. 70, Divodurum was nearly destroyed by a sudden outbreak of the troops of Vitellius. It was completely ruined in the invasion of the Huns under Attila, A.D. 452; but it afterward became the capital of Austrasia, which was sometimes termed the kingdom of Metz. In the division of the Carlovingian empire, Metz was comprehended in the kingdom of Lotharingia, or Lorraine.

In the territory of the Leuci we find, 1. Nasium, near what is now the village of Grand-Nancy. At a place in this vicinity called Nas or Nais, inscriptions have been dug up with the name Nasienses. Nasium does not, as some suppose, answer to the present town of Nancy or Nanci, this last not being known to have existed before the twelfth century. 2. Tullum Leucorum, to the east of the preceding, now Toul. It was the chief city of the tribe. In some deeds of the time of the Carlovingian princes it is called Leuci.

2. OF THE BATAVI.

I. Under this head we will make mention also of the other German tribes settled on the left bank of the Rhine.

II. All these tribes, the Batāvi included, may be divided into two classes, namely, 1. Tribes at or near the mouths of the Rhine, in what were called *Insulæ Batavorum*, &c., and, 2. Tribes on the bank of the Rhine further up, in what was called *Germania Prima*.

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First Class.

I. Caninefates, a tribe of the same origin with the Batavi, occupying not only the western part of the Insula Batavorum, between the Helium Ostium and Flevum Ostium, or the lower and upper mouths of the Rhine, but also extending beyond the Flevum Ostium into what is now northern Holland and west Friesland. They were not so numerous, however, as the Batavi, and hence their name gradually became lost in that of the larger community. Their chief city was Lugdunum Batavorum, now Leyden. An account of the Lacus Flevo, in the territory of the Frisii, will be given in the geography of Germania, when describing the Rhine.

II. Batavi, a Germanic tribe of the race of the Catti, who seem to have left their native district some time before the age of Cæsar, and to have settled on the banks of the Vahalis, now the Waal, a branch of the Lower Rhine. They occupied the district, called by some the island, between the Vahalis and Mosa, above their junction, and also the island formed by the northern arm of the Rhine, or Rhine of Leyden, the Vahalis before its junction with the Mosa, the Vahalis and Mosa after their junction, and the ocean. This district and island, or, to speak less precisely, these two islands, were called Insulæ Batavorum. In strictness, however, there was but one island, that, namely, last described, and the more correct designation, therefore, was *Insula Batavorum*, in the singular. now constitutes part of the province of South Holland. Cæsar appears to consider their country as belonging to Germany and not to Gaul, the limits of Belgic Gaul being placed at the southern branch of the Rhine, or Waal, after its junction with the Mosa, or Meuse. We have followed, however, the ordinary arrangement, which assigns them to Gallia. The Batavi seem to have occupied also a small portion of country on the banks of the Rhine, and not within the island. Cæsar did not carry the war into the country of the Batavi. Under Augustus they became allies of the Romans. Drusus, the brother of Tiberius, resided for a time among them, and dug a canal, Fossa Drusiana, which connected the Rhine with the modern The name of the Batavi can be traced even now in that of the Beturve, which is a district of the ancient Batavorum Insula, between the Rhine, the Waal, and the Lek.

After the death of Galba, the army of the Rhine having proclaimed Vitellius, and followed him on his way to Italy, the Batavi took the opportunity of rising against the Romans, whose alliance had become very burdensome to them. Claudius Civilis, a man belonging to one of their principal families, though bearing a Roman name, acted as their leader. time the insurrection seems to have spread among the neighboring tribes of Germans as well as of Belgian Gauls, but the speedy return of the legions suppressed the movement. resisted for a time, but the Batavi were at last subdued. it would appear that they obtained conditions, for we find them afterward restored to their former state of free allies of Rome. It appears, however, that subsequently, in the reigns of Trajan and Hadrian, the Romans completely established their dominion over them, for we find in the Antonine Itinerary and the Peutinger Table two Roman roads across the country. The Batavi were employed by Agricola in his wars in Britain. In the latter part of the third century, during the civil war which desolated the empire, the Salian Franks invaded the country of the Batavi, and established themselves in it. They armed pirate vessels, which were encountered and defeated at sea by Carausius. Constantius and Constantine waged war against the Franks of the Batavian island, but could not drive them out of it. The Franks lost it, however, in the reign of Julian, by an irruption of Frisii, who came from the northern country, near the Zuider Zee, and drove the Salian Franks beyond the Meuse. After this the Insula Batavorum formed part of the country called Frisia, which, in the time of the Merovingians, extended southward as far as the Scheldt.

III. Gugerni or Guberni, between the Meuse, Waal, and Rhine. They were a part of the German Sigambri, who had been removed by Tiberius, B.C. 8, into the territory of the Menapii.

IV. Ubii, a German tribe transported by Agrippa (B.C. 38) to the left bank of the Rhine, and settled between this river and the Meuse. Their territory extended from what is now the Rheno-Prussian village of Gelb or Gellub, as far as Rheinmagen. Their capital was Oppidum Ubiorum, afterward Colonia Agrippina or Agrippinensis.

Second Class.

I. Vangiones, a German tribe dwelling on the Rhine, to the east of the Treviri, and north of the Nemetes, or between the modern Bingen and Selz. Their capital was Borbetomägus, now Wurms.

II. Tribŏci or Tribocci, a German tribe on the left bank of the Rhine, and between that river and the Mediomatrici and Lerici. Their chief town was Argentoratum, now Strasbourg. They dwelt in what is now Alsace.

III. Raurāci, between the Triboci, Sequani, and Helvetii, and extending from the mouth of the Arola, now Aar, to that of the Birsa, near Basilēa, now Basel or Bâsle. Their capital was Augusta Rauracorum, now Augst.

Cities of the Tribes just mentioned.

In the territory of the Caninefātes and Batavi we find, 1. Forum Hadriani, now Haarlem. 2. Lugdunum Batavorum, now Leyden, near the mouth of the northern arm of the Rhine. 3. Prætorium Agrippinæ, now Roemberg, on the Rhine. 4. Tablæ, now Delft. 5. Vada, now Gouda. 6. Trajectum, now Utrecht. 7. Batavodurum, now Wyk de Duurstede. 8. Arenacum or Arenatium, near the modern Arnheim. 9. Noviomagus, on the Vahalis, now Nimwegen. It was the capital of the Batavi. 10. Batavorum Oppidum, on the Mosa, southwest of the preceding, now, according to D'Anville, Battenburg.

In the territory of the Gugerni we find, 1. Mediolanum, now Mayland. 2. Colonia Trajana, called, also, Castra Ulpia, now Kelln, in the Circle of Cleve. 3. Tricesima, which some confound with Castra Ulpia, now Drich, near Santen, the classical name for which latter place is Castra Vetera. 4. Asciburgium, fabled to have been founded by Ulysses. Mannert, following Ptolemy, makes this place to have been situate on the right bank of the Rhine, where the canal of Drusus joined the Isala, now Yssel, and where the modern Dösburg lies. It seems more correct, however, to make it correspond to Asburg, or the neighboring hamlet of Essenberg, on the left bank. The name Asciburgium is derived by some from the old German term ask, "a vessel," "a ship," and berg or burg, whence it is sup-

posed to be equivalent to Schiffburg. Others, however, connect the name with the legend of Odin and the Asi.

In the territory of the Ubii we find, 1. Gelduba, probably one of the border fortresses erected by Drusus. A bridge was here thrown by him over the Rhine. It is now Gelb, in the province of Düsseldorf. 2. Novesium, now Neuss. 3. Durnomagus, now Dürmagen. 4. Juliacum, to the southwest, now Jülich, or, as the French write the name, Juliers. 5. Oppidum Ubiorum, the capital of the tribe, afterward named Colonia Agrippina or Agrippinensis, when a Roman colony had been established here, first by Agrippa, and subsequently by Agrippina, the daughter of Germanicus, and wife of the Emperor Claudius. The colony of Agrippina, who was the granddaughter of Agrippa, appears to have been sent out to strengthen the first, and its title was Colonia Claudia Agrippinensis, Agrippa's colony having been called Colonia Agrippina. The modern name of the place is Cologne, or, as the Germans write it, Köln. Agripping adorned it with an amphitheatre, temples, aqueducts, &c., the ruins of which may still be traced. It continued to be the capital of Lower Rhenish Gaul until A.D. 330, and, after a frequent change of masters, was annexed to the German empire in A.D. 870. We must be careful not to confound the Ara Ubiorum with the Oppidum Ubiorum. former was an altar, probably erected to Augustus, like that at Lugdunum or Lyons. Not far from Bonn is a hill called Godesberg, and it is highly probable that this is the site of the Ara Ubiorum. That it was somewhere near Bonn is pretty certain. The name Godesberg seems to indicate that the place was the seat of a religious worship of some kind. 6. Bonna, now Bonn, on the Rhine, above Colonia Agrippina. of a remote date it is called Bunna, a word which Arndt derives from the Celtic "Buhn," meaning a spot containing productive fields, pastures, and water-courses. Bonna became the head-quarters of the sixth Roman legion, and, according to the Antonine Itinerary, was afterward kept up as one of the Roman strongholds on the Rhine. It rose ultimately to be a place of some note. According to Tacitus, the Roman troops under Herennius Gallus were defeated near this city by the Batavi under Claudius Civilis. Bonna and Novesium are repeatedly mentioned in the subsequent account of the contest with the

Batavi as places where the Roman generals mustered their forces. In the year 355, Bonn was destroyed by an irruption of German tribes, and in 359 was rebuilt by the Emperor Julian. Under the Frankish sovereigns it is said to have borne the name of *Verona*. In 881 it was almost ruined by the Northmen.

In the territory of the Vangiones we find, 1. Bingium, now Bingen, at the influx of the Nava, now Nahe, into the Rhine. The bridge of stone leading at the present day across the Nahe into Bingen is generally supposed to have been constructed by Drusus, and the ruins of the old fort of Klopp, upon an eminence near the town, stand upon the site of the castle known to have been built by the same commander. 2. Magontiacum or Moguntiacum, now Mayence, or, as it is called in German, Mainz or Mentz, on the Rhine, and the capital of the tribe. In B.C. 13, Drusus founded the fortress, on the site of which Kastel now stands. The town sprang up around this, but did not extend, under the Romans, to the Rhine. It was destroyed by the Vandals in 406, and lay in ruins for some centuries, until it was rebuilt by the King of the Franks. The writers of the Middle Ages generally prefer the form Mogontiacum when speaking of this place, not Magontiacum. 3. Borbetomagus, called, also, Augusta Vangionum, and now Worms, south of the preceding, and likewise on the Rhine. The modern name appears to have arisen from the intermediate form Warmatia or Wormatia, which occurs in the "Notitia." It was destroyed by the Vandals and Huns, but was rebuilt by the Franks. It was afterward the residence (at least for a considerable time) of Charlemagne, who held in its vicinity those primitive legislative assemblies which, meeting in May, were called Mai Lager or Champs de Mai, in one of which assemblies the war with the Saxons was resolved on. Some of the Frankish and Carlovingian kings also resided here.

In the territory of the Nemetes we find, 1. Noviomagus, called afterward Augusta Nemetum, and now Spire or Speyer. The modern name comes from the form Sphira, which occurs in the Ravenna geographer. 2. Julius Vicus, now Germersheim.

In the territory of the Triboci we find, 1. Argentorātum, now Strasbourg, or, as it is called in German, Strassburg.

This place is first mentioned by Ptolemy, who erroneously calls it a town of the Vangiones. It was in the Roman province of Germania Prima or Superior; and it was near this place that Julian, while he held the command in Gaul, as Cæsar, defeated the Allemanni, under their king Chnodomar, A.D. 357. At a subsequent period it appears to have fallen into their hands, and it was taken from them by Clovis and the Franks. It was afterward included in Lotharingia, and in the tenth century was incorporated with the German empire. was during these changes, perhaps in the sixth century, that it exchanged its ancient name of Argentoratum for that of Stratæburgus or Strateburgum, modified subsequently into Stratzburg, and finally into Strassbourg. 2. Helellum, called in the Antonine Itinerary Helvetum, now Schlettstadt. In its vicinity were dug up statues of Mercury and Diana, together with gold and silver coins.

In the territory of the Rauraci we find, 1. Argentovaria or Argentaria, now Arzheim. In this vicinity the Emperor Gratian obtained a victory over the Alemanni. 2. Basilēa, now Basel, Bāsle, or Bāle. It was originally a castle or fortress built by the Emperor Valentinian I., and after the ruin of Augusta Rauracorum it rose gradually into importance. In 917 it was destroyed by the Maggars, but was soon rebuilt, and became again a flourishing place. 3. Augusta Rauracorum, the chief city of the tribe. Its original name appears to have been Rauracum. A Roman colony was led hither by Munatius Plancus during the reign of Augustus. The city was destroyed by Attila. The village of Augst occupies a part of the ancient site.

3. OF THE SEQUANI AND HELVETIL

In the Province of Maxima Sequanorum.

I. Sequăni.—These, as before remarked, were a tribe of Celtic origin. Their territory was bounded on the north by the range of Mount Vogesus, on the west by the Arar, now Saône, on the south by the Rhodanus, and on the east by the range of Jura. It answered, therefore, to what is now the northern portion of the department of Ain, the eastern portion of the department of Saône, the departments of Jura and Doubs, and the southern portion of that of Haute-Saône. The Sequani

were one of the most powerful tribes of the Celtic stock, and had long, together with the Arverni, been rivals of the Ædui, as regarded the superiority in Gaul, before the arrival of Cæsar in that country. Having been unsuccessful in this contest, they had called in the aid of Ariovistus, a powerful German monarch, who, however, after defeating the Ædui and their allies, had become a general oppressor to both parties, and had seized upon the territories of some of the dependents of the Sequani themselves along the banks of the Rhine. After the defeat of Ariovistus by Cæsar, some of the followers of the former, and especially the Triboci, still retained possession of this newly-acquired territory, which thenceforth was completely lost to the Sequani. By the subsequent division which Augustus made of Gaul, the Sequani became included in the new province of Belgica, of which they ever afterward continued to form part.

II. Helvetii.—The territory of this powerful tribe, who were of Celtic origin, was bounded on the west by Mount Jura, which separated them from the Sequani, on the south by the Pennine Alps, on the east by the Rætian Alps, and on the north by the Rhine. They occupied, therefore, a great part of what is modern Switzerland. Cæsar says that they were divided into four pagi, or cantons, of which he names two, the pagus Tigurinus and pagus Urbigenus or Verbigenus. The modern cities of Zürich and Orbes are supposed to have derived their names from these two pagi. The other cantons, not named by Cæsar, were the pagus Tugenus and pagus Ambronicus. The Helvetii appear for the first time in history about The Tigurini having joined the Cimbri in their invasion of Gaul, the Roman consul L. Cassius was sent with an army against them. He met the forces of the Tigurini some say near the Arar or Saône, according to others near the eastern bank of the Lacus Lemanus, or Lake of Geneva; but he was defeated and slain, together with his lieutenant Piso, and most of his soldiers. The rest made a capitulation, by which they were allowed to return home after passing under the yoke. About half a century later, the great body of the Helvetians resolved to migrate with their families into the more fertile parts of Gaul. They burned their towns and villages, and passed through the country of the Sequani until they reached the Arar. Here Cæsar fell upon the Tigurini, after

the others had crossed the stream, and completely defeated them. The rest of the Helvetii were defeated with great slaughter near Bibracte, in the country of the Ædui. survivors, about one third of the original number, were allowed to return to their country, and were henceforth in the condition of allies and tributaries of Rome. The Helvetii who returned home were mustered by Cæsar, and found to be 110,000 individuals, men, women, and children. Their number when they left home was 368,000 individuals, of whom 92,000 were fighting men. After the total conquest of Gaul, the Romans sent colonies into the country of the Helvetii; but it appears from Tacitus (Hist., i., 67) that the Helvetii retained the right of keeping garrisons in some of their own strongholds, and it was the rapacity of the twenty-first legion, which appropriated to its own use certain moneys destined to pay the Helvetian garrisons, that was the first cause of the fatal insurrection of After the legions of Germany had proclaimed Vitellius, and when Cæcina, one of his lieutenants, was marching with a strong force toward Italy, the Helvetii, who were not vet acquainted with the events at Rome and the murder of Galba, intercepted letters which were written in the name of the legions of Germany to the legions of Pannonia, and which invited the latter to join Vitellius, and they arrested the centurion and his escort as guilty of treason against Galba. this, Cæcina, who had just entered the territory of the Helvetii on his way to Italy, devastated the country, destroyed the Thermæ Helveticæ (the modern Baden, in Aargau), and advanced against the main body of the Helvetians, who were in arms, and had chosen a certain Claudius Severus for their leader. The Helvetians, however, made no stand against the Roman veterans, and were massacred without mercy. Those who escaped death were sold as slaves. The town of Aventicum, one of the first in Helvetia, sent messengers to Cæcina, with an offer to surrender; but Cæcina sentenced the principal inhabitants to death, and referred the fate of the rest to Vitellius, who with difficulty was induced at length to spare their lives. Vespasian, who succeeded Vitellius, had lived, when a boy, at Aventicum with his father Sabinus, who went thither as a publicanus, and had died there. After Vespasian became emperor he remembered Aventicum, and embellished and enlarged the

place. Nothing particular occurred after this in Helvetia until the beginning of the fifth century of our era. During this long period the Roman language and Roman habits and manners became prevalent throughout the country, though it is supposed that the more central valleys and the Alpine recesses retained a sort of rude independence, since Roman stations have been traced forming a line at the foot of the high Alps, which seem to have extended from the Lake of Wallenstadt to that of the Waldstätter, where Luzern now is, and thence to the highlands of Bern, as if to guard the open country against the irruptions of the mountaineers. At the breaking up of the western empire, the Burgundians were the first to form a permanent situation in western Switzerland, between the Jura range, the Leman Lake, and the River Aar, and Geneva became the occasional residence of their kings. Meantime the Allemanni, a wilder and more barbarous race than the Burgundians, occupied the banks of the Rhine as far as eastern Helvetia, until, being defeated by Clovis, king of the Franks, at Tolbiacum, near Cologne, A.D. 496, the Franks became masters of the country which the Allemanni had occupied, including a great part of Helvetia. The old natives of Helvetia became now by turns subjects or serfs of these various masters; being no longer a nation, their very name became obliterated, and they were included in the general appellation of Romans, by which the northern conquerors designated the inhabitants of the countries once subject to Rome.

In the territory of the Helvetii is the Lacus Lemanus, now Lake of Geneva, one of the largest in Europe, and extending in the form of a crescent from east to west. The ordinary orthography of the name is Lemanus, as we have given it, though Oudendorp, Ukert, and others consider Lemannus more correct. Strabo, according to the latest and best text (that of Kramer), calls it ἡ Λημέννα λίμνη, but Ptolemy Λιμένη. In the Antonine Itinerary it is termed Lausonius Lacus, and in the Peutinger Table Losannensis Lacus. Most of the ancient writers who make mention of this lake, repeat the erroneous account that the River Rhodanus traverses this sheet of water without mingling its waters with it.

Cities of the Sequani.

Proceeding from north to south we find, 1. Luxovium, now Luxeu. There were warm springs in this quarter, and thermæ erected over them, the ruins of which still exist. 2. Portus Abucini, on the Arar, southwest of the preceding, now Port sur Saône. 3. Segobudium or Segoboduum, also on the Arar, now Seveux, on the Saône. 4. Loposagium, on the Dubis, now Luxiol, near Beaume. 5. Epamanduodurum, to the northeast of the preceding, now Mandeure. 6. Vesontio, on the Dubis, now Besançon. The origin of this town is unknown. Local traditions and legends dated it as far back as four hundred and thirty-four years before the foundation of Rome, which, according to the received chronology, would be about 1186 B.C. All that we know with certainty is, that in Cæsar's campaign against Ariovistus, it was the greatest city of the Sequani, and a place so strong by situation as to offer to either party the greatest facilities for protracting the war. Cæsar, by a rapid march, seized the town and placed a garrison in it. The Roman general has described the place as nearly surrounded by the River Dubis, which here formed a bend, as though its course had been traced by a pair of compasses, and the interval left by the river was occupied by an eminence, which, being fortified with a wall, served as a kind of citadel. This was a flourishing place under the Romans, but when the inroads of the barbarians commenced, the city of Vesontio had its share in the general calamities, and was destroyed by the Allemanni in the time of Julian. It was rebuilt, but again destroyed by Attila and the Huns. Several remains at the present day attest its former greatness. 7. Ariolica, called afterward Pontarlum, to the southeast of Vesontio. It is now Pontarlier. 8. Magetobria, now Moigte de Broie, according to the best opinion, and in the vicinity of Pontarlier. The MSS. of Cæsar, who makes mention of the place, have almost all Admagetobria. 9. Pons Dubis, now Pont, near the frontier of the Ædui.

Cities of the Helvetii.

Proceeding from the northeast toward the south, we find, 1. Vindonissa, now Windisch, on the Arola, now Aar, in the

canton of Bern. 2. Forum Tiberii, to the north of the preceding, on the Rhine, now Kaiserstuhl. 3. Turicum, now Zürich, on the Limagus, now the Limmat. 4. Salodurum, to the southwest of the preceding, on the River Arola, now Solothurn or Solerne. 5. Aventicum, now Avenches, called, also, Colonia Flavia and Pia Flavia. It was the chief city of the Helvetii, and has already been alluded to in the account just given of that people. It took the name of Colonia Flavia and Pia Flavia in the reign of Vespasian, when embellished and enlarged by that emperor, as already remarked. 6. Lausanna, now Lausanne, near the southern shore of the Lacus Lemanus. 7. Noiodunum, called, also, Colonia Equestris, now Nyon, in the Pays de Vaud.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO AQUITANICA AND LUGDUNENSIS.

I. Uliārus, now Oleron, lying on the coast of the Santones, off the mouth of the Carantonus, now Charente, and a little distance above the mouth of the Garumna. It belonged to Aguitanica. The name Uliarus occurs in Pliny. Subsequently we have in Sidonius Apollinaris the derived adjective Olarionensis, which serves to mark the transition to the modern name of Oleron. This island extends about twenty miles in length, and is about seven miles in breadth. The inhabitants appear to have had a very considerable trade as early as the twelfth century, and to have collected adjudged cases upon the laws of the sea for regulating their own commercial affairs. Hence arose the famous maritime laws of Oleron, which became known and partially adopted throughout all Europe. is an historical error to suppose, as some do, that the laws of Oleron were compiled and published by Richard I. of England, in this island, on his return from the Holy Land.

II. Radis, now Ré, a short distance above Uliarus. The Ravenna geographer calls it Ratis, but the writers of the Middle Ages give the name as Radis. It is about sixteen miles long, and about three or four broad.

III. Ogia, now D'Yeu or Dieu, northwest of the preceding, and lying farther out than it from the mainland, the nearest point of which is distant more than ten miles. It is about six miles in length, and about two and a half or three miles in breadth. The whole island is little else than a vast granitic

rock, covered with a vegetable soil three feet in thickness in the lower part, but in the higher ground so thin as to leave the rock almost bare.

IV. Strabo speaks of a small island, not far from the coast, and lying off the mouth of the Ligeris, on which, according to him, dwelt a species of Amazonian race, addicted to the worship of Dionysus or Bacchus, and who once every year, during the celebration of the orgies of the god, unroofed his temple and put on a new covering before evening. Each woman brought materials for this purpose; and if any one of them allowed these materials to fall to the ground, she was torn in pieces by the rest. Some one always suffered in this way every year. Strabo calls these females "the women of the Samnites," al τῶν Σαμνιτῶν γυναῖκες, but Tyrrwhit reads Ναμνιτῶν, which is, no doubt, the true lection, the island lying off the coast of the Namnetes.

V. Vindilis, now Belle Isle, a little to the northwest of the mouth of the Ligeris. It was known to the Romans under this name of Vindilis, and it appears in a deed of the Middle Ages under the name of Guedel, a form which has some affinity with Vindilis. It was also, according to some writers, known to the ancients under the Greek name of Calonesus, of which its modern name of Belle Isle is a translation. The island is about eleven miles in length, and about six in breadth.

VI. Uxantis, now Ouessant, or, as the English writers frequently call it, Ushant, above the Gobæum Promontorium, and lying off the territory of the Osismii. It is about four miles long and three broad. Another ancient name was Axantos.

VII. Casarēa, now Jersey, off the coast of the Unelli. Its greatest length is about twelve miles, its greatest breadth about seven. The only mention made of this island in the ancient writers is that which occurs in the Antonine Itinerary. Its original name is said to have been Angia. It appears to have been called Cæsarea in honor of some one of the Roman emperors.

VIII. Sarnia, to the northwest of the preceding, now Guernsey. Mentioned in the Antonine Itinerary. The form of the island approximates to that of a right-angled triangle. The sides face the south, east, and northwest, and are respectively about six and a half, six, and nine miles long.

IX. Ridūna, to the northeast of the preceding, now Aurigny, or, as the English writers more commonly term it, Alderney. It is about three and three quarter miles long, and about one and three eighths broad, and about eight miles in circuit. The Northmen settled here at an early period.

REMARKS

ON THE

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES OF CELTIC NAMES OF PLACES, TRIBES, &c

I. The remarks which we are here about to make, though obtained from the best sources, must be regarded as at best merely conjectural or approximative. And this must be the character of all speculations upon the language of the ancient Celtic race, notwithstanding the boasted discoveries of modern times.

II. We do not know of any original Celtic alphabet, nor of any works in that language. Indeed, we have no positive knowledge left of the language of Celtic Gaul, unless we suppose it to have been similar to the Gaelic of Scotland. The Breton language, like the Welsh, is a dialect of the Cymric tongue, belong-

ing to that great division of the Celtæ.

III. It has been long disputed whether the Basque language is a dialect of the old Celtic. W. Von Humboldt (*Prūfung der Untersuchungen ūber die Urbewohner Hispaniens vermittelst der Vaskischer Sprache*, Berlin, 1821) seems to be of opinion that the Basque language is of Iberian, and not of Celtic origin; and this undoubtedly is the true view of the case, the Iberian itself being connected with the Finnish dialects of northern Europe.

IV. The remains of the old Celtic language must therefore be sought in the Gaelic, and in the Erse or Irish, which is said to resemble the Gaelic, and also in the Welsh, and its cognate dialect the Breton. These seem to be the only probable offspring, though greatly changed of course, of the language of the ancient Celts. We will now proceed to our more immediate subject, and will consider first the prefixes and next the suffixes or endings of the Celtic local names frequently occurring in ancient writers. The arrangement will be, for convenience' sake, an alphabetical one.

Celtic local Prefixes.

1. AGEN. In the life of St. Caprasius it is said that the town of Agennum, now Agen, in Guienne, had its name "ab hiatu spelunca." Agen in Welsh, at the present day, is a word for "a cleft or cave." There is no similar word in Erse with this meaning; but in Bas-Breton we have agen, aienen, eienen, "a spring, coming forth from the earth," and in Cornish we have agery, "to open."

(Adelung, ii., p. 42. Diefenbach, i., p. 21.)

2. Alp or Alb. A root rather than prefix, but still deserving of a place here. It appears to mean "high," "lofty," and is found in the name of the Alpes or Alps. Hence we have in Isidorus, iv., 8, the following: "Gallorum lingua Alpes alti montes vocantur." Compare with this the Gaelic alb, "an eminence or mountain," whence Albion, a name given to England from its lofty coasts, and Albain, an appellation for the Highlands of Scotland. So we find Alba in Latium, and several places of the same name in Spain and Gaul, and it is observable that all of them were situate on elevated spots. We find the Albani.

also, in upper Asia, occupying a mountainous region called Albania, on the western shore of the Caspian. The same root is likewise found in the name of many other places in other quarters. (Compare Adelung, Mithr., vol. ii., p. 42. Diefenbach, Celtica, i., p. 18, seq. Pott, Etymol. Forsch., ii., p. 525.)

- 3. Ar. A prefix or preposition, meaning "upon" or "near," and appearing in the Latinized term Armorica, where it is united with the Celtic mor, "the sea," by which the northwestern coast of Gaul is indicated, where the Armorica Civitates were situated. We find it, also, in the name of Arelate, the modern Arles, which is said to come from ar, "upon," and llaeth, "a morass." In the Bas-Breton we have still arvor, "a maritime tract," changed from the old form armor by the genuine Celtic substitution of v for v, just as we find the people of armorica called Armorica called Armorica in Procopius. (Diefenbach, i., p. 80.)
- 4. Briga, Briva, Bria, as in *Brigantes, Brivates, Briaria*, &c., consult remarks on these same combinations under the head of *Suffixes*.
- 5. Cad, Cat, Cas, in Cadurci, Catalauni, Cassivelauni, &c. Cad in Welsh means "a troop" or "band." According to Vegetius (ii., 2) and Isidorus (ix., 3, 46) the term caterva in Latin was of Celtic origin, and meant the same as legio, and hence Diefenbach supposes it to have come from cad and torfa (Welsh, catrawd), "a troop of soldiers." Compare the Gaelic ceatham, "a band of men." In Bas-Breton cadarn, and in Cornish cad, both signify "a fight."
- 6. Carn. This prefix appears to mean "rocky," "stony," and hence the Carni and Carnutes, as well as many names of places involving the same root, would seem to have reference to stony or rocky localities. Compare the Gaelic carn, "to heap up," and carn, cairn, "a heap of stones," "rock."
- 7. Crag. A root rather than prefix, unless we suppose it to form part of the name Graioceli. It means "rocky," "stony," and may be compared with the Bas-Breton krag, the Welsh craig, the Gaelic carraig, creag, all signifying "a rock," "a large stone," and our English word "crag." This same root appears to exist in the name of Mount Cragus in Cilicia and Lycia, and more than probably in that of the Alpes Graia, "the craggy or rocky Alps," an etymology far preferable to that which connects the name of the Graian Alps with the fabled wanderings of the Grecian hero Hercules. Diefenbach appears to think that there is some confirmation of this Celtic etymology to be deduced from Petronius Arbiter, c. 122. This same root crag seems to lie also at the basis of the modern name Crau, which is given to the celebrated lapideus campus, or "stony field," near Arles.
- 8. Duro. The syllables duro at the beginning (and also durum at the end) of Celtic local terms, occur in the names of places, &c., situated near rivers or the sea. We find in Welsh dur, i. c., dur, and dur or duvyr, signifying "water." We have also dour in Cornish, and dur in Bas-Breton, with the same meaning. The Irish and Gaelic word corresponding is uisge; but Lhuyd and Armstrong give dobhar and dovar, "water," as obsolete Erse terms, with which we may compare the Sanscrit dabhra, "ocean." We find, also, the same root dur appearing in the names of several rivers, as, for example, the Durius in Spain, the Aturis and Duranius in Gaul, the Duria in northern Italy, &c., all marking Celtic localities. (Prichard, Researches, vol. iii., p. 125. Diefenbach, i., p. 155, seq. Adelung, ii., p. 57.)
- 9. EBOR OF EBUR. This prefix is probably derived from a lost Celtic word analogous to ufer, "banks," in German. Supposing this to be so, the name Ebor-ach, whence Eborācum, "York," in England, might mean a place on the banks of a river or water. Another, but less probable derivation, would be that connecting it with the Welsh aber, "a confluence of waters." It has been sup-

posed that such names of places as Aberdeen, Aberbothrick, Abercurnig, &c., in Scotland, contain this Celtic prefix. (Prichard, iii., p. 128.)

10. Luc. The meaning of this prefix has been disputed. According to one of the ancient writers (Clitophon, ap. Plut. de Flum.-Op. ed. Reiske, vol. x., p. 733) the name Lugdunum (Λούγδουνον), in which it occurs, signifies "crow's hill," the prefix lug meaning "a crow :" λοῦγον γὰρ τῆ σφῶν διαλέκτῳ τὸν κόρακα καλούσιν, δούνον δὲ τόπον ἐξέχοντα. The latter part of the name is explained well enough, but the signification given to the prefix can not be correct. The appellation Lugdunum appears rather to indicate a city situate on or near a hill or elevation on a river, or near some confluence of waters. We may then compare lug with the Welsh lhwch, and the Erse loch, "a lake," "an inlet of water," &c. This explanation will suit very well the position of Lugdunum, the modern Lyons, situate under a hill at the confluence of the Arar and Rhodanus. So, again, Lugdunum Batavorum, the modern Leyden, is in the immediate vicinity of water, being situate on the Old Rhine, the burg or central part, which marks the site of the ancient city, being the only elevated spot of ground for many miles around; and, finally, Lugdunum Convenarum, now St. Bertrand, stands on high ground on both sides of the Garonne.

11. Nant. This prefix means "a valley," "a rivulet." In Welsh we have nant, "a ravine," "a brook;" in Cornish, nance, "a valley." The term nant is in common use in Wales, and it is understood in the same sense in Savoy, where we find Nant de Gria, Nant de Taconay; and so, also, Nant Arpenaz, "a torrent flowing over a summit," which is exactly described in Welsh by Nant-ar-penau. Hence many local names in Gaul, as Nantuacum, now Nantue, in Burgundy, situated in a narrow valley, on a lake between two mountains; so, also, the Nantuates, who, as we are informed by Strabo, occupied the valley of the Rhine, immediately below its source; and, again, Nannetes or Nannetes, now Nantes or Nantz, in a country intersected by rivulets. (Adelung, ii., p. 64. Prichard, iii., p. 128. Diefenbach, i., p. 82.)

12. Nemet. This prefix, according to Fortunatus, meant "a temple," probably a grove-temple, and hence was connected, perhaps, in some way with the Greek $v\ell\mu\sigma\varsigma$, "a glade," "a piece of wooded ground," and the Latin nemus, "a grove." Hence Drynemetum (where it appears as a prefix to the second part of the compound), the name of a place in Galatia, where the Council of Three Hundred, from all the three nations of Gauls in Galatia, were accustomed to assemble. Hence, also, Vernemetis, the name of a celebrated temple in the vicinity of Burdigala, now Bourdeaux, which, according to Fortunatus, meant "fanum ingens." So, too, Augustonometum, now Clermont, in Auvergne, where was the temple of Vasa. (Adelung, ii., p. 77. Prichard, iii., p. 127. Radloff, Neue Untersuchungen, p. 399.)

2. Celtic local Suffixes.

1.—ACUM. This suffix contains the Celtic root ac, "water," and hence the names of so many places in Gaul with this termination, all situate on rivers, &c., as Arenacum, on the Rhine; Laureacum, on the Danube; Magontiacum, on the Rhine; Turnacum and Bagacum, on the Scaldis; Blariacum, on the Mosa, &c. (Adelung, ii., p. 41.) So, at a later day, the convent of Mauzacum, in Auvergne, is said to have been so named from its having been founded "inter aquas." (Diefenbach, i., p. 66.)

2. -ATES, -IATES. In Welsh, iaid, aid, is a frequent termination of adjectives, as Ceisariaid, the Cæsarians or Romans, easily convertible into ates, iates; likewise aeth, a termination of nouns, as Cattraeth. (Prichard, iii., p. 129.)

3. -BRIGA, -BRIVA, -BRIA. The meaning of these terminations is far from being clearly ascertained. The first occurs very frequently in the Ibero-Celtic parts of Spain, as Nertobriga, Mirobriga, Langobriga, Segobriga, &c., and is generally appropriated to towns on rivers. This had led many to imagine that the ending in question is the same as the German Brücke and English bridge. This, however, though a very plausible analogy, will not stand the test of a close examination, and can not in any way be made applicable to such names as that of the Brigantes. It seems better, therefore, upon the whole, to give the termination briga the signification of "city," with the associate idea of elevation, i. e., a city on some elevated spot, and we may then compare it with the Welsh bre, "a hill or mount," "a peak;" the Erse bri, "a hill," "a rising ground," whence brioghach, "hilly;" the Gaelic braigh, "the upper part" of any thing or place, &c. The termination bria will also have the meaning of "a city," and with this we may compare the ending $\beta\rho i\alpha$, in the names of certain cities of Thrace, which, according to Strabo, also meant "a city," and was equivalent to πόλις. Thus Mesembria, a colony of Megarians, was originally called Menebria, that is, "the city of Mene," its founder. So the city of Selys was Selybria, and Enus was called Poltyobria, or the city of Poltys. (Strab., vii., p. 319, Cas.) The termination -briva appears to be closely connected with these, and is probably only another form of the same ending, though many give this also the meaning of "bridge," while others make it signify "ford."

4. -DUNUM, -DINUM. According to Bede, dun signified a hill in the language of the ancient Britons, namely, that of Wales and the Strathelyde Britons. According to Clitiphon, as quoted by Plutarch (compare remarks under the pre-ñx Lug), it was the same in meaning in the language of Gaul, δοῦνου καλοῦσι τὸυ ἐξέχοντα. Adelung compares with this the Greek τι, "a heap." In the names of places in Britain, dun and din appear to have been used indifferently one for the other. Thus, for example, Londinum and Londunum are both found. The Welsh dinas, meaning "city," has probably the same origin. In the Netherlands, the sand-hills on the coast are, according to Adelung, still called Dūnen, and so in England the name of downs or dunes is given to little hillocks of sand formed along the sea-coast. (Adelung, ii., p. 57. Prichard, iii., p. 126.)

5. -DURUM. Compare remarks on the prefix Duro.

6. -LAUNI, -LANI. In Welsh llan means "an inclosure." Hence Segelauni, Catieuchlani, &c.

7.—MAGUS. According to some, this ending has reference to an association, union, or fellowship, and hence to a collection or union of families. (Radloff, p. 397.) Others, however, find traces of it in the Irish and Gaelic māgh, "a field or plain." It would then have reference to the surrounding locality (Prichard, iii., p. 126. Diefenbach, i., p. 77.)

8. -RITUM. This ending, which we find in Augustoritum, Camboritum, &c., appears to mean "a ford." Compare the Welsh Rhŷd and Cornish Rŷd, both meaning "a ford;" hence Rhyd-ychan, the Welsh for Oxford. Erse has no corresponding word approaching this root.

9. -TRIGES. This ending occurs in the name of the Durotriges, &c. In Welsh, trig means "to stay," "to abide;" whence trigan, "to remain;" trigadiad, "inhabitants;" and hence Duro-triges, "dwellers near water."

INSULÆ BRITANNICÆ.

LIL

THESE may be considered under three heads: 1. Britannia; 2. Hibernia; 3. Insulæ Britannicæ Minores.

1. BRITANNIA.

1. NAMES.

I. Britain was known to the Romans by the names of Britannia (in Greek Βρετανία, Βρεττανία, Βρεττανικὴ νῆσος) and Albion ('Αλονίων).

II. The etymology of the word Britannia or Britain has been much disputed. One of the most plausible is that which derives it from a Celtic word brith or brit, signifying "painted," and tan, an element which we find forming part of so many other names of countries, both ancient and modern, such as Mauri-tan-ia, Aqui-tan-ia, Lusi-tan-ia, Kurdi-stan, Hindo-stan, &c., and which appears to signify "region" or "country."

III. The term brith is supposed to refer to the custom followed by the inhabitants of staining their bodies of a blue color extracted from woad. Carte says that the name in the most ancient British poets is Inis ("island") prydhain. The meaning, however, of prydhain, if it be any thing more than a corrupt form derived from the root brit, does not seem to be known.

IV. The name Albion comes from the Celtic root Alp or Alb, and has reference to the lofty coasts of the island, as it lies facing Gallia. Others, giving Alp or Alb the meaning of "white," refer the name to the white or chalky cliffs of Britain

2. EARLY AND LATER INHABITANTS.

I. The earliest inhabitants of Britain, so far as we know, were probably of that great family, the main branches of which, distinguished by the designation of Celts, spread themselves so widely over middle and western Europe. The Welsh and Danish traditions indicate a migration from Jutland, but it is decidedly erroneous to seek to connect, as some do, the name

Cymry, the national appellation of the Welsh, with the Cimmerians (the Κιμμέριοι of Herodotus) and the Cimbri of the Roman historians, on the supposition of their having once occupied Jutland, or the ancient Cimbric Chersonese. Neither the Cimmerii nor Cimbri ever dwelt in this quarter.

II. The Celtæ crossed over from the neighboring country of Gaul; and Welsh traditions speak of two colonies, one from the quarter since known as *Gascony*, and another from *Armorica*. At a later period, the Belgæ, actuated by martial restlessness or the love of plunder, assailed the southern and eastern coasts of the island, and settled there, driving the Celts into the inland country.

III. On the conquest of the island by the Romans, we must conceive that it received a very considerable mixture of Roman and foreign blood. Comparatively few women would be brought by the Roman soldiers, and such of the latter as settled permanently would unite themselves to native females. It was the policy, moreover, of the Romans, to employ the native troops of one province in the conquest or military administration of other provinces, a contrivance obviously devised with the view of preventing revolt. Accordingly, we find among the Roman monuments of Britain abundant evidence of the presence in that island of soldiers from Gaul and various other parts of the Continent, from which circumstance there necessarily resulted a great intermixture of foreign and native blood.

IV. On the subsequent withdrawal of the Roman forces, the Saxons and Angli came over and founded the Heptarchy, and their power, in its turn, was overthrown by the Normans; so that here, again, we have two new elements added to the ancient stock.

3. HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

I. Britain becomes known in early times to the Phœnicians, and then to the Carthaginians and the people of Massilia, who all trade for tin to certain islands, called by Herodotus Κασσιτερίδες (Cassiterides), or "The Tin Islands," and which are commonly supposed to have been the Scilly Isles, including a part of Cornwall.

II. This trade in tin is subsequently carried on by the Venetes, a Gallic tribe, and from them Cæsar is first made acquainted with Britain, and conceives the idea of its conquest. Stimulated by the desire of military renown, and of the glory of first carrying the Roman arms into Britain, and provoked, also, as he tells us, by the aid which had been furnished to his enemies in Gaul, Cæsar determines upon the invasion of the island.

III. Invasion of Britain by Casar.—He penetrates some distance into the island; but his success is certainly not such as to induce him to attempt the permanent reduction of the island; and, from some passages in ancient authors, it has been conjectured that his success was even not so great as he himself has represented it.

IV. After the departure of Cæsar, the Romans do not return to the island until the reign of Claudius, leaving the Britons alone for about a century, or going no further than to threaten an attack. In the interval, those of the Britons who dwelt in the parts nearest to Gaul appear to have made some progress in civilization. They coin money, and many British coins have been discovered, of which about forty belong to a prince named Cunobelin (so on his coins), called by Suetonius Cynobellinus, who appears to have reigned over the Trinobantes, and to have had his residence at Camalodunum.

V. Aulus Plautius, a senator of prætorian rank, is sent by Claudius into Britain, in command of the forces designed for the subjugation of the island. The Britons, under the sons of the now deceased Cunobelin, namely, Cataratacus and Togodumnus, make a brave resistance, but are finally overpowered, Claudius himself having come with re-enforcements to the Roman army, and having taken Camalodunum, the capital of Cunobelin, and numbers of the natives submit either at discretion or upon terms. The Roman Senate decree triumphal honors to the emperor, and the memory of his success has been perpetuated in his coinage.

VI. Vespasian (the future emperor), lieutenant to Plautius, conquers Vectis Insula, or the Isle of Wight, and has considerable success against the tribes of the southern coast. Upon the departure of Plautius, however, those Britons who are struggling for independence overrun the lands of such as have allied themselves with, or submitted to the Romans, and P. Ostorius Scapula, who succeeds Plautius (A.D. 50) as proprætor, finds affairs on his arrival in the greatest confusion.

VII. Ostorius, after valiant efforts on the part of the natives, defeats and takes prisoner Cataratacus (or, as Tacitus calls him, Caractacus), about A.D. 51, and receives the insignia of a triumph. Cataratacus is thrown into chains by Cartismandua, queen of the Brigantes, with whom he has taken refuge, and is delivered up to the Romans. He is taken to Rome with some of the members of his family, but his unbroken spirit and noble demeanor command the admiration of Claudius, and he is pardoned by that prince.

VIII. The Romans are harassed after this with repeated skirmishes, and by the obstinate resistance of the Silures, and Ostorius dies, worn out with care, about A.D. 53. Didius succeeds Ostorius, and finds the Roman affairs in a very depressed condition. He engages in hostilities with the Brigantes, but does not appear to have gained any signal advantage. His command extends into the reign of Nero, the successor of Claudius, probably until A.D. 57.

IX. Veranius succeeds Didius, but lives only a year after taking the command, and does little in that interval. His successor is Suetonius Paulinus, who obtains more distinction Suetonius attacks and captures the Isle of Mona, now Anglesey, the great seat of the Druids, cuts down their sacred groves, and destroys the altars on which they had been accustomed to offer up human sacrifices. He is then recalled from the western shores of Britain by the news of a great rising of the natives under Boadicea, in that part of the island which has already been subdued by the Romans. The revolt of Boadicea nearly extinguishes the Roman dominion in Britain, but at last the natives are completely defeated in a battle, the scene of which is supposed to have been just to the north of London. The Roman general ravages with fire and sword the territories of all those native tribes which have wavered in their attachment to the Romans, as well as those who had joined in the

X. The chief civil, or, rather, fiscal officer of the Romans, quarrels with Suetonius, and, though the latter retains the command for a time longer, he is at last recalled without finishing the war (A.D. 62), and Petronius Turpilianus is appointed his successor. Under the milder treatment of the new general the revolt seems to have subsided.

XI. Several generals are successively sent to the island; but the Romans make little progress until the time of Vespasian (A.D. 70-78), in whose reign Petilius Cerealis subdues the Brigantes, who had renewed hostilities; and Julius Frontinus subdues the Silures. But the glory of completing the conquest of South Britain is reserved for Cnæus Julius Agricola, whose actions are recorded subsequently by his son-in-law, the historian Tacitus.

XII. From the time of Agricola, the later years of whose government are during the reign of Domitian, we read little about Britain in the Roman historians until the reign of Hadrian (A.D. 85–120), who visits the island, which has been much disturbed. The conquests which Agricola had made in Caledonia seem to have been speedily lost, and the emperor fences in the Roman territory by a rampart of turf, eighty Roman, or about seventy-four English miles long. This rampart will be described at the end of the geography of Britannia.

XIII. In the subsequent reign of Antoninus Pius (A.D. 138–161) Roman enterprise revives a little. Lollius Urbicus, his lieutenant in Britain, drives back the barbarians, and recovers the country as far as Agricola's line of stations between the Forth and Clyde. An account of the intrenchment erected by him in this quarter, and which is called the Wall of Antoninus, will be found at the end of the geography of Britannia.

XIV. In the following reign of M. Aurelius Antoninus (A.D. 161–180) we have some notice of wars in Britain, which Calpurnius Agricola is sent to quell. During this same reign, or else in that of Commodus, son of Aurelius, the Caledonians break through the Wall of Antoninus. Ulpius Marcellus, an able leader, is sent against them, and defeats them with heavy loss. A great mutiny among the legions in Britain occurs during the reign of Commodus, which is with difficulty quelled by Pertinax (afterward emperor), one of the successors of Marcellus in the government of the island.

XV. The contest between Clodius Albinus and Severus for the empire drains Britain in a great measure of its troops, who are called by the former to strengthen his army, and the northern tribes, taking this opportunity of renewing hostilities, break into the Roman province, and spread desolation far and near. Induced by the unfavorable tenor of the intelligence from the island, Severus, who had succeeded in the contest with Albinus, resolves to undertake the war in person, and accordingly crosses over, A.D. 206 or 207. The natives do not come to a pitched battle, so that the campaign is not marked by any brilliant exploits. Severus, however, orders the erection of the famous wall that bears his name, stretching across the island from the *Solway* to near the mouth of the *Tyne*, an account of which will be given hereafter.

XVI. Many years elapse, and many emperors reign after this, without the occurrence of any event of importance in Britain. In the reign of Dioclesian and Maximian, Carausius, a Menapian, who commands the Roman fleet in the North Sea against the Frankish and Saxon pirates, seizes Britain, and assumes the purple (about A.D. 288), and such is his activity and power that the emperors consent to recognize him as their partner in the empire. He is killed, however, some years afterward by Allectus, one of his friends (A.D. 297), and, three years after this, Britain is recovered for the emperors by Asclepiodotus, captain of the guards.

XVII. On the resignation of Dioclesian and Maximian (A.D. 304), Britain is included in the dominions of Constantius Chlorus, one of their successors. This prince dies in Britain, at *Eboracum*, now *York* (A.D. 307), after having undertaken, with some success, an expedition against the Caledonians. His son, Constantine the Great, also carries on some hostilities with the same people. The northern tribes now begin to be known by the name of Picts and Scots.

XVIII. The Roman power is now fast decaying, and the provinces are no longer secure against the irruptions of the savage tribes that press upon the long line of the frontier. Britain, situated at one extremity of the empire, suffers dreadfully. The Picts, Scots, and Attacotti burst in from the north, and the Saxons infest the coast. In the reign of Valentinian, probably in the year 367, Theodosius (father of the emperor of that name) being sent over as governor, finds the northern people plundering Augusta, or London, so that the whole province appears to have been overrun by them. He drives them out, recovers the provincial towns and forts, re-establishes the Roman power, and gives the name of Valentia either to the district between the walls of Antoninus and Severus, or, as Horsley thinks, to a part of the province south of the wall of Severus.

XIX. Gratian and Valentinian II. associate Theodosius (son of the preceding) with them in the empire. This gives umbrage to Maximus, a Spaniard who had served with great distinction in Britain, and he raises in this island the standard of revolt. Levying a considerable force, he crosses over to the Continent, defeats Gratian, whom he orders to be put to death, and maintains himself for some time in the possession of his usurped authority. He is at last, however, overcome by Theodosius, and the province returns to its subjection to the empire. The Britons who had followed Maximus to the Continent, receive from him possessions in Armorica, where they lay the foundation of a state which still, at the present day, under the appellation of Bretagne, retains their language and their name.

XX. Stilicho, whose name is one of the most eminent in the degenerate age in which he lived, serves in Britain with success, probably about A.D. 403. After his departure, the unhappy province is again attacked by the barbarians, and is agitated also by the licentiousness of the Roman soldiery, who successively set up three claimants to the imperial throne, Marcus, Gratian, and Constantine. The first and second are soon dethroned and destroyed by the very power which had raised them. Constantine is for a time more fortunate. Raising a force among the youth of the island, he passes over into Gaul, (A.D. 409), acquires possession of that province, and fixes the seat of his government at Arelate, now Arles, where he is soon after besieged, taken, and killed. His expedition serves to exhaust Britain of its natural defenders: the distresses of the empire render the withdrawal of the Roman troops necessary, and near the middle of the fifth century, or, according to some, about A.D. 420, nearly five hundred years after the first invasion by Julius Cæsar, the island is finally abandoned by them.

4. Division of Britannia by the Romans.

I. The first Roman governors were the proprætors, officers chiefly or entirely military; nor are there, so far as we know, any records or traces of a subdivision of Britain till a comparatively late period of the Roman dominion. Our authority for the administration of Britain is the *Notitia Imperii*, a record of late date, probably as late as the time of the Romans quit-

ting the island. From the "Notitia" we learn that the government of the island was intrusted to an officer called *Vica-rius*, under whom there were five governors, one for each of the five provinces.

II. The names of the five provinces into which Britannia was divided were as follows: 1. Britannia Prima; 2. Britannia Secunda; 3. Flavia Cæsariensis; 4. Maxima Cæsariensis; 5. Valentia or Valentiana. Previous to this, the only division had been into Britannia Romana, or that part of the island under the Roman sway, and Britannia Barbara.

III. The situation of these five provinces is given by Richard of Cirencester, a monk of the fourteenth century, whose work was discovered and published at Copenhagen about the middle of the last century, and whose authority, though disputed by some, is apparently not untrustworthy.

IV. Britannia Prima, according to the authority just mentioned, comprehended the country south of the Thames and Bristol Channel.

V. Britannia Secunda comprehended the country separated from the rest of Britain by the Sabrina, now the Severn, and the Deva, now the Dee; in other words, Wales, Herefordshire, Monmouthshire, and parts of Salop, and of the counties of Gloucester and Worcester.

VI. Flavia Cæsariensis comprehended the territory north of the Thames, east of the Severn, and probably south of the Mersey, of the Don which joins the Yorkshire Ouse, and the Humber.

VII. Maxima Cæsariensis comprehended the country from the Mersey and the Humber to the wall of Severus.

VIII. Valentia or Valentiana comprehended the country between the wall of Severus and the rampart of Antoninus, including the southern part of Scotland, the county of Northumberland, and part of Cumberland.

IX. The remaining part of the island was never long in the power of the Romans. Agricola overran part of it, and established some stations; and probably other commanders after him brought it into temporary subjection. The part which Agricola thus subdued is termed by Richard Vespasiana, and included the country between the rampart of Antoninus and a line drawn from the Moray Frith (Ptolemy's æstuary of the Varar) to the mouth of the Clyde.

X. Horsley gives an arrangement of the provinces entirely different from the above, except so far as regards Britannia Secunda. He makes Britannia Prima to extend from the coast of Sussex to the banks of the Nene, and assigns the western counties to Flavia Cæsariensis. He places Valentia within the wall of Severus, and Maxima Cæsariensis beyond it.

6. SITUATION AND EXTENT.

I. The knowledge which the earlier Greeks and Romans had of the shape and situation of Britain was at first extremely limited and erroneous. According to Dio Cassius, it was at first a matter of complete uncertainty whether Britannia was an island or merely a frontier of the Continent. The invasion of Julius Cæsar first threw some light upon this subject. That commander describes Britannia as triangular in shape, one side of the triangle being opposite to Gaul, and in this he is followed by Strabo.

II. The Romans first became fully acquainted with the circuit of Britain in the time of Agricola, during whose government in that quarter a Roman fleet first sailed round the island, as if to mark the extended boundary of the Roman empire.

III. Erroneous ideas, however, still remained on various points connected with the position of this island. The old geographers had given the northern coast of Spain a northwesterly direction, and, unacquainted with the extent to which Bretagne reached westward, made the coasts of Gaul and Germany run in an almost uniform northeasterly direction. Tacitus, the contemporary of Agricola, places Britain in the angle thus formed, and makes its western side lie facing the coast of Spain.

IV. According to Ptolemy, Britannia had the Oceanus Duecaledonius ('Ωκεανὸς Δουηκαληδόνιος) on the north; the Oceanus Hibernicus ('Ωκεανὸς Ἰονδερνικός), or Irish Sea, and the Oceanus Verginicus ('Ωκεανὸς Οὐεργίνιος), or St. George's Channel, on the west; the Oceanus Britannicus ('Ωκεανὸς Βρεττανικός), or British Channel, on the south; and the Oceanus Germanicus ('Ωκεανὸς Γερμανικός), or German Ocean, on the east.

7. MOUNTAINS.

THE only chain of mountains in Britain expressly named by the ancient geographers are the Grampian, Mons Grampius.

In the ancient Scottish tongue this ridge was called Grantzbain. It runs from Dumbarton to Aberdeenshire. The Grampian hills are rendered memorable by the victory which Agricola obtained on them over Galgacus, in the last year of his government, and which entirely broke the spirit of the Britons. In Strathern, about half a mile south of the Kirk of Comerie, is a valley nearly a mile broad, and some miles long, through which the Erne and Ruchel flow. Here are the remains of two Roman camps, with a double wall and trench, one large enough to contain the eight thousand men which Agricola led to battle on the occasion mentioned above, the other smaller, and suited for his three thousand cavalry. Two miles southeast is a third camp, in which two legions might be conveniently quartered. The place itself still bears the name of Galgachan Rossmoor, taken from that of the Caledonian leader.

8. PROMONTORIES.

1. On the Southern Side.

1. Bolerium Promontorium (Βολέριον 'Ακρωτήριον), called, also, Antivestæum Promontorium ('Αντιονέσταιον 'Ακρωτήριον), now Land's End, in Cornwall. 2. Ocrinum Promontorium ("Οκρινον 'Ακρωτήριον), called, also, Damnŏnium Promontorium (Δαμνόνιον 'Ακρωτήριον), now Lizard Point, in Cornwall. 3. Criû Metopon (Κριοῦ Μέτωπον), now Ram Head, in Devonshire. 4. Hellēnis Promontorium, now Berry Head, in Devonshire, to the northeast of the preceding. 5. Vindelia Promontorium, to the east of the preceding, now Portland Bill, in Dorsetshire. 6. Durotrigum Promontorium, now St. Alban's Head, in Dorsetshire, in the territory of the Durotriges.

2. On the Western Coast.

1. Herculis Promontorium (Ἡρακλέους ᾿Ακρωτήριον), to the northeast of the Bolerium Promontorium, now Hartland Point, in Devonshire, at the mouth of Bristol Channel. 2. Octapetarum Promontorium (Ὀκταποίταρον ᾿Ακρωτήριον), now St. David's Head, at the southwestern extremity of Wales. 3. Cancanorum Promontorium (Καγκανῶν ᾿Ακρωτήριον), now Braich y Pwill, or Braichy Pwill Head, in Caernarvonshire, Wales. 4. Novantum Promontorium (Νουαντῶν ᾿Ακρωτήριον), now Mull of Galloway. 5. Epidium Promontorium (ὙΕπίδιον ᾿Ακρωτήριον), now Mull of Cantyre.

3. On the Northern Side.

1. Ebudum Promontorium, now Cape Wrath, in Sutherlandshire, Scotland. 2. Tarvidium Promontorium, called, also, Orcas Promontorium ("Ορκας 'Ακρωτήριον), now Dunnet Head, in Caithness-shire, Scotland. 3. Virvedrum Promontorium (Οὐιερονέδρονμ 'Ακρωτήριον), called, also, Caledoniæ Extrema, now Duncansby Head, in the same shire.

4. On the Eastern Side.

1. Berubium Promontorium (Οὐερονδίονμ ᾿Ακρωτήριον), now Noss Head, in Caithness-shire, Scotland. 2. Penoxullum Promontorium, now Ord Head, in the same shire. 3. Taizelum Promontorium (Ταίζελον ᾿Ακρωτήριον), called, also, Taixalorum Promontorium, now Kinnaird's Head, in Aberdeenshire, Scotland. This point of land forms the northeastern extremity of the Grampian chain. 4. Ocellum Promontorium (Ἦντιση ἀναιτιση ἐκρωτήριον), now Spurn Head, at the mouth of the Humber, in England. 5. Cantium Promontorium (Κάντιον ᾿Ακρωτήριον), called, also, Acantium Promontorium, now the North Foreland, in Kent.

9. RIVERS, BAYS, AND INLETS.

1. On the Eastern Side.

I. Tamesis, called by Tacitus the Tamesa, now the Thames, rising in the country of the Dobuni, a few miles to the southwest of Durocornovium, now Cirencester, and flowing eastward into the Oceanus Germanicus, or German Ocean. Its whole course is about two hundred and twenty miles. It is a common opinion that this river, in the upper part of its course, is properly called Isis, and that it is only below the junction of the Thame that it is called Thames, which name is said to be formed by combining the two names Thame and Isis. But Cambden observed long ago that this is a mistake; that the river was called Thames in its upper as well as in its lower part; that the name Isis never occurs in ancient records, and was never used by the common people, but only by scholars. Cæsar writes the name Tamesis (evidently Tames or Thames, with the addition of a Latin termination). Tacitus, as we have already said, writes it Tamesa, and Dio Cassius Ταμέσα,

which is the same name with the appendage of a different termination. Ptolemy has it ' $I\dot{a}\mu\eta\sigma a$, or, in some MSS., ' $Ia\mu\epsilon\sigma a\dot{\iota}\varsigma$, and in some editions ' $I\dot{a}\mu\iota\sigma\sigma a$, all which, most probably, are forms of the same name, 'I having been, by the carelessness of some early transcriber, substituted for T.

II. Idumania (Εἰδουμανία ποταμός) or Sidumanis (Σιδούμανις), according to most authorities Blackwater River and Bay, but according to Mannert the mouth of the River Stour. The former is the more correct opinion. Both the Blackwater and the Stour are in Essex, the latter forming, in part, its northern boundary.

III. Sturius, now the Stour, to the north of the preceding, and having Harwich at its mouth.

IV. Garyĕnus (Γαρρίσενος), in the territory of the *Iceni*, now the Yare, in the county of Norfolk.

V. Metaris Æstuarium (Μεταρὶς εἶςχνοις), now the Wash. Cambden makes Ptolemy's Μεταρίς to be a corruption of the old British term Matiraith, which, according to him, was a general name for an æstuary. The æstuary of the Wash at the present day is occupied for the most part by sand-banks, dry at low water. Between these banks the streams that flow into the æstuary have their channels. Among these streams may be named the Ouse, the ancient Trivona, and the Nene, the ancient Aufona, which others, however, make to correspond to the modern Avon.

VI. Abus ("A605), now the Humber. The Humber is, properly speaking, an æstuary, since the name is only applied to the united streams of the Trent and smaller or northern Ouse, and since the tide flows up both these rivers above their junction. Some make a distinction, therefore, between the Abus æstuarium and the Abus fluvius, regarding the former as the Humber, and the latter as the modern Ouse. The tributaries of the Ouse are the Urus, now Yore, and the Derventio, now Derwent.

VII. Dunum Æstuarium ($\Delta o\tilde{v}vov \kappa \delta \lambda \pi o\varsigma$), now the mouth of the River Tee.

VIII. Vedra (Οὐέδρα), now, according to most authorities, the Weare, in the county of Durham. Mannert, however, seeks to identify it with the Tyne, but this last is the ancient Tina, north of the Vedra, and marking the eastern termination of the wall of Hadrian.

IX. Alauna or Alaunus ('Λλαῖνος), now the Aln, in Northumberland. Some, less correctly, make it answer to the modern Coquet, which enters the ocean a little to the south of the Aln. Horsley, still more erroneously, makes the Alaunus the same with the modern Tweed.

X. Tueda, now the Tweed. This Latin form of the name is given by Cambden, who errs, however, in making the Taum Estuarium correspond to the mouth of this river, when it is rather the Frith of Tay, further to the north.

XI. Boderia Æstuarium (Βοδερία εἶςχυσις), now the Frith of Forth. Here was the western termination of the wall of Antoninus. Tacitus calls it Bodotria Æstuarium. Some erroneously make Bodotria the same as Solway Frith, but this was the Ituna Æstuarium.

XII. Tava Æstuarium, now the Frith of Tay, into which fell the River Tavus, now the Tay.

XIII. Æsica, as given by Richard of Circnester, now the Southern Esk. In like manner, the same authority gives the Tina, a short distance above the former, now the Northern Esk.

XIV. Deva (Δηούα, Διούα), now the Dee, on which stands New Aberdeen. It rises in the Grampian chain. There was another river called the Deva, the modern name of which is also the Dee, on the western coast of England, and which falls into the Irish Sea, having Chester on it, near its mouth.

XV. Celnius (Κέλνιος), now the Doveran, to the west of Taizelum Promontorium, and rising in the Grampian chain.

XVI. Tuæsis Æstuarium (Τοναῖσις εἴςχνσις), now Murray Frith. Richard of Cirencester calls this Vara Æstuarium, but the Vara Æstuarium of Ptolemy (Οὐάρα εἴςχνσις) is rather the Frith of Cromartie, a little beyond.

XVII. Abona Æstuarium, now Dornoch Frith. On the point of land where the lower shore of the frith terminates, now Tarbet Ness, were erected the "Aræ Finium Imperii Romani."

XVIII. Loxa (Λόξα), just above the æstuary last mentioned, now, according to Mannert, the Struth, but, according to others, the Loth or Lossie.

XIX. Ila ("Ila), now the Wick, running into a bay of the same name.

2. On the Northern Side.

I. Nabæus (Nabaios), now, according to Mannert, the Durness, but more probably the Navern.

II. Volsas Sinus (Οὐόλσας κόλπος), now Calva Bay.

3. On the Western Side.

I. Longus Æstuarium (Λόγγος εἴςχυσις), now Loch Linnhe, at the mouth of which lay Maleas Insula, now the Isle of Mull.

II. Lelaanonius Sinus (Λελααννόνιος κόλπος), now Loch Fine, with the Glota Insula, now Isle of Arran, lying off its mouth.

III. Glota Æstuarium ($K\lambda\tilde{\omega}\tau a$ εἴςχνσις), now the Frith of Clyde. Here was the western extremity of the wall of Antoninus.

IV. Rherigonius Sinus ('Ρεριγόνιος κόλπος), now Loch Ryan, the outer shore of which formed part of the Novantum Chersonesus, terminating in the Novantum Promontorium, or Mull of Galloway.

V. Abravannus Sinus ('Αδραούαννος κόλπος), now Luce Bay, east of the Novantum Chersonesus.

VI. Iena Æstuarium (Ἰην \tilde{a} εἴςχνσις), to the east of the preceding, now Wigton Bay.

VII. Itūna Æstuarium (Ἰτοῦνα εἴςχνσις), now Solway Frith, between Scotland and England, and where was the western 'termination of the wall of Hadrian, its eastern one being on the Tyne.

VIII. Moricambe Æstuarium (Μορικάμδη εἴςχυσις), now Moricambe Bay, just below which was Setantiorum Portus, now Lancaster Bay.

IX. Belisama Æstuarium (Βελίσαμα εἴςχυσις), now the mouth of the River Mersey, according to most authorities; but more properly that of the River Ribble, and so given by Cambden.

X. Seteia Æstuarium ($\Sigma \varepsilon \tau \eta \hat{\iota} a \varepsilon \hat{\iota} \zeta \chi \nu \sigma \iota \zeta$), the mouth of the Deva, the modern Dee.

XI. Toisobius or Toesobis (Τοίσοδις), now the Conway, a river of Wales, flowing into the Irish Sea. At its mouth was Conovium, now Aberconway.

XII. Stucia (Στούκια), now, according to Mannert, the Duffi or Douay, but, according to Reichard, the Dyst. The former is the more correct opinion.

XIII. Tuerobis (Τουέροδις), now the Teify or Teive, on the southern borders of Cardiganshire in Wales. Reichard makes it the Milford.

XIV. Sabrina Æstuarium, called, also, Sabriana Æstuarium (Σαβρίανα εἴςχυσις), now the mouth of the Severn, the ancient Sabrina or Sabriana. Tacitus makes mention of this river, and names as one of its tributaries the Antona, now the Avon. The true reading in Tacitus for the latter stream is, Mannert thinks, Avona.

XV. Vexalla Æstuarium (Ούἐξαλλα εἴςχυσις), now Bridgewater Bay, just below the mouth of the Severn.

4. On the Southern Side.

I. Cenionis Ostia (Κενίων ποταμός), now, according to Mannert, Falmouth Harbor or Bay, into which the small river Vale flows.

II. Tamarus (Τάμαρος), now the Tamar, on which stands Plymouth, and the Tamari Ostia is now Plymouth Sound.

III. Isaca (Ἰσάκα), now the Axe, or, as it is more commonly called, the Exe, with Exmouth at the entrance, and Exeter, the ancient Isca Dumnoniorum, a little distance up.

IV. Alænus ('Aλαῖνος), or, according to a more correct reading, Alaunus ('Aλαῖνος), supposed to be the small river on which Bridport is at present situated. Ptolemy places his Isca on this, in the interior, which the copyists often confound with Isca Silurum, now Caer Leon, in Monmouthshire.

V. Portus Magnus (Μέγας λιμήν), now Portsmouth Harbor. The position of this haven is well ascertained, both by its size and security, when compared with the neighboring harbors. The situation of Venta Belgarum, now Winchester, to the northwest, as mentioned by Ptolemy, likewise serves to fix the locality. The only difficulty is, that the Isle of Wight, the ancient Vectis Insula, lies to the southwest of Portsmouth, whereas Ptolemy places it to the southeast of the Μέγας λιμήν. The old geographer, however, occasionally makes slips of this kind.

VI. Novus Portus (Καινὸς λιμήν), now the harbor of Rye, into which the River Rother, the ancient Limanus, empties. Mannert, less correctly, seeks to identify it with the harbor of Hythe.

VII. Next follow, in succession, Portus Lemanianus, now

the harbor of Lymne, the ancient Lemanæ; Portus Dubris, now the harbor of Dover; and Portus Ritupis, called, also, Ritupæ or Rutupiæ, now Richborough.

10. CHARACTER OF THE COUNTRY, &c.

The ancient writers describe Britannia as for the most part level and well wooded. Several portions of it, however, are represented as mountainous and hilly, particularly to the north. The soil is spoken of as very productive, and the surface of the country as abounding in rivers large and small. Among the mineral products are mentioned gold, silver, iron, tin, &c.

11. CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.

I. Various particulars are given, relative to the ancient Britons, by Cæsar, Tacitus, Mela, Dio Cassius, Herodian, and other writers.

II. According to Cæsar, the natives of Cantium, the modern *Kent*, were by far the most civilized, and did not differ much in their customs from the Gauls. The inland people, on the other hand, for the most part did not sow corn, but lived on milk and flesh, and had their clothing of skins.

III. All the Britons, according to the same authority, stained themselves with woad, which produced a blue tinge, and gave them a more fearful appearance in battle. They also wore the hair long, and shaved every part of the body except the head and the upper lip.

IV. They fought without coat of mail and helmet, armed merely with the long and broad Celtic sword, a javelin, and a small shield.

V. They built their dwellings after the manner of mere huts. For example, the city of Cassivellaunus, though called a town and a capital, appears, from Cæsar, to have been nothing but a thick wood or labyrinth, with clusters of houses, or rather huts, scattered about it, the whole being surrounded by a ditch and a rampart, the latter made of mud or felled trees, or probably of both materials intermingled. In many respects, the towns of the Cingalese, in the interior of Ceylon, and the mode of fighting against the English practiced by that people at the beginning of the present century, resemble the British towns and the British warfare of nineteen centuries ago.

VI. The mode of fighting practiced by the ancient Britons differed in one respect very materially from that of the Gauls, namely, in the employment of war-chariots, which several times produced very serious effects on the Romans. These cars, called Esseda or Esseda by the Romans, were made to contain each a charioteer for driving, and one, two, or more warriors for fighting. They were at once strong and light; the extremity of their axles and other salient points were armed with scythes and hooks for cutting and tearing whatever fell in their way, as they were driven rapidly along; and the Britons, in the management of them, displayed, according to Cæsar, the greatest valor and dexterity.

VII. As to the religion of the Britons, Druidism flourished among them in all its vigor. Indeed, this singular superstition was considered by the Gauls, erroneously to be sure, to have originated in Britain. A late writer, Sir J. Mackintosh, observes, that it is not without Oriental features. So much subserviency, as he remarks, of one part of a nation to another, in an age so destitute of the means of influence and of the habits of obedience, is not without resemblance to that system of ancient Asia which confined men to hereditary occupations, and consequently vested in the sacerdotal caste a power founded in the exclusive possession of knowledge.

VIII. The Druids, according to Cæsar, were the ministers of sacred things; they had the charge of sacrifices, both public and private; and they gave directions for the ordinances of religious worship. A great number of young men resorted to them for the purpose of instruction in their system; and they were held by the nation at large in the highest reverence. They determined most disputes, whether of the affairs of the state or of individuals; and if any crime had been committed, if a man had been slain, if there were a contest concerning an inheritance, or the boundaries of lands, it was the Druids who settled the matter. One Arch Druid presided over all the rest. One of the most revolting features in the superstition of the ancient Gauls was the offering of human sacrifices, and they employed the Druids to officiate at these.

12. TRIBES OF BRITANNIA.

I. Cæsar, in his two descents upon Britain, saw no more than a corner of the country. The furthest point to which he penetrated was the capital of Cassivellaunus, which is generally supposed to have stood on the site of the now ruined town of Verulam, in the vicinity of St. Alban's, in Hertfordshire. Cæsar himself describes the dominions of this prince as lying along the north bank of the Thames, at the distance of about eighty miles from the sea, by which he probably means the east coast of Kent, from which he began his march. Unfortunately, we are nowhere told of what people Cassivellaunus was king. The only British nations mentioned by Cæsar are the people of Cantium, the Trinobantes, the Cenimagni, the Segontiaci, the Ancalites, the Bibroci, and the Cassi. Nearly all these must have dwelt in that part of the country which he hastily overran.

II. The *Trinobantes* of Cæsar occupied *Essex*, and probably the greater part of *Middlesex*; the *Cenimagni* are thought to have dwelt in *Suffolk*, *Norfolk*, and *Cambridgeshire*; the *Segontiaci* in *Hampshire*; the *Ancalites* and *Bibroci* in *Berkshire*; and the *Cassi* in *Hertfordshire*, one of the hundreds of which, that in which St. Alban's stands, still retains the name of *Cassio*.

III. According to Ptolemy, who, after all, is the only authority upon whom much dependence can be placed, the space over which the tribes mentioned by Cæsar have been commonly diffused appears to have been fully occupied by other tribes. The following is the order in which he enumerates the several nations inhabiting what we now call South Britain, with the manner in which he appears to distribute the country among them.

Tribes in South Britain, according to Ptolemy.

I. Brigantes.—Their territory is described as extending across the island from sea to sea, and it appears to have comprehended the greater part of the modern counties of Durham, York, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. The Brigantes were considered the most powerful of the British nations.

II. Parisi.—These are stated to have been adjacent to the Brigantes, and in a southeastern direction from them. They

are thought to have occupied the southeastern angle of York-shire, now called Holderness, lying along the coast of Bridlington or Burlington Bay.

III. Ordovices.—They dwelt to the southwest of the Brigantes and Parisi, in the most westerly part of the island, and appear to have been the inhabitants of North Wales.

IV. Cornavii.—These were in an eastern direction from the preceding, and seem to have occupied Cheshire, Shropshire, Stafford, Worcester, and Warwick.

V. Coritani.—These were in an eastern direction from the preceding. They probably occupied the whole of the space intervening between the Cornavii and the eastern coast, comprehending the modern counties of Derby, Nottingham, Lincoln, Leicester, Rutland, and part of Northampton.

VI. Catyeuchlani (or Catuellani, as they are called by Dio Cassius).—These lay to the south of the preceding, and are conjectured to have occupied the remainder of Northampton, and all Buckingham, Bedford, Hertford, and Huntingdon, and probably the southwestern portion of Oxfordshire, lying along the Thames.

VII. Siměni, called by Tacitus Iceni.—These lay to the east of the preceding, and are supposed to have occupied Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridgeshire.

VIII. Trinoantes, called Trinobantes by Cæsar and Tacitus.—These lay to the south of the preceding. Ptolemy places them more to the eastward than the Simeni, and this may suggest a doubt as to these last being really the same with the Iceni, who appear, from the Itinerary, to have certainly inhabited Norfolk. Probably, however, Ptolemy erroncously supposed the coast of Essex to stretch further to the east than that of Norfolk and Suffolk. There can be no doubt as to Essex being the district, or a part of the district, assigned by Ptolemy to the Trinobantes, since he settles them beside the æstuary Jamissa, or the mouth of the Thames; and they also occupied a portion of Middlesex.

IX. Demetæ.—These were situated to the southwest of the Ordovices, and in the extreme western part of the island. They seem to have occupied the three south Welsh counties of Caermarthen, Cardigan, and Pembroke.

X. Silūres.—These were to the east of the preceding, and

occupied, as is supposed, the Welsh counties of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan, and also Hereford and Monmouthshire.

XI. Dobuni (probably the same who are called by Dio Cassius the Boduni).—These lay to the east of the Silures, and probably inhabited Gloucestershire, with the greater part of Oxfordshire.

XII. Atrebatii.—These lay to the southeast of the preceding, and are thought (although the point is disputed) to have been the occupants of Berkshire. As they were, if we may trust to their name, a Belgic community, it is more probable that they were seated to the south than to the north of the Thames; and the order in which they are enumerated by Ptolemy, namely, among the nations to the south of the Catieuchlani and the Trinobantes, appears also to favor the former position.

XIII. Cantii.—These were to the east of the preceding, and extended to the eastern coast of the island. They inhabited Kent and a part of Surrey, and their territories and those of the Atrebatii met, in all probability, somewhere in the northern part of Surrey.

XIV. Regni.—These lay to the south of the Atrebatii and Cantii. They therefore occupied Surrey, Sussex, and probably the greater part of Hampshire.

XV. Belgæ.—These were situate to the south of the Dobuni, and are supposed to have possessed the eastern part of Somerset, Wilts, and the western part of Hampshire.

XVI. Durotriges.—These lay to the southwest of the preceding. Their seat was the present Dorsetshire, which still, in a measure, preserves their name, which signifies, in Celtic, "the dwellers by the water." (Compare page 159.)

XVII. Dumnonii (or Damnonii, as they are called in the Itinerary).—These occupied the southwestern extremity of the island, and were the inhabitants of Devon, Cornwall, and the western part of Somerset. Their name Dumn, or, as it would be in Celtic, Duvn, probably still subsists in the modern Devon.

XVIII. Although we have thus indicated the localities of the several tribes by the names of the present English counties, it is, of course, not to be understood that the ancient boundaries were the same as those of these comparatively modern divisions. But to ascertain the precise line by which each territory was

separated from those adjacent to it is now, in most instances, utterly impossible. All that can be attempted is to determine generally the part of the country in which each lay. In a good many cases, the evidence of inscriptions and other remains has confirmed Ptolemy's account.

XIX. The tribes mentioned by Richard of Cirencester, within the space we have just been surveying, are, the Segontiaci, Ancalites, Bibroci, and Cassi (as already noticed), the Hedui in Somersetshire, the Cimbri in Devonshire, the Volantii and Sistuntii in Lancashire, and the Rhemi in Surrey and Sussex, but these last are probably intended to be considered the same people with the Regni of Ptolemy. Richard's list also includes the Cangiani, supposed to be the same with the Gangi mentioned by Tacitus, and with the Cangani of Dio Cassius. These, however, do not appear to have been a distinct nation, but those of the youths of each tribe, or, at least, of many of the tribes, who were employed as the keepers of the flocks and herds.

XX. Ptolemy's description of North Britain is, in various respects, not so satisfactory as that which he has given of the southern portion of the island. In particular, his account is rendered obscure and confused by a strange mistake into which he has fallen as to the direction of the land, which he extends, not toward the north, but toward the east. In other words, he gives as differences of longitude what he ought to have given as differences of latitude. His enumeration of the northern tribes may also be safely presumed to be more imperfect than that which he gives of those in the south.

Tribes in North Britain, according to Ptolemy.

I. Novantæ.—These are the first people Ptolemy mentions, He describes them as dwelling on the north coast of the island (by which we must understand the west), immediately under the peninsula of the same name. The peninsula or promontory of the Novantæ is admitted on all hands to be what is now called the Mull of Galloway; and the Novantæ are considered to have occupied the county of Wigton, the western half of Kircudbright, and the southern extremity of Ayrshire, their boundaries probably being the Irish Sea, the Solway Frith, the River Dee, and the hills dividing the districts of Galloway and Carrick.

II. Selgovæ.—These are described as under or south (meaning east) from the Novantæ, and appear to have occupied the eastern half of Kircudbright and the greater part of Dumfriesshire. They are supposed to have given its present name to the Solway, along which their territory extended.

III. Damnii.—These lay to the north of the preceding, and would seem to have extended over the shires of Ayr, Lanark, Renfrew, and Stirling, a corner of that of Dumbarton, and a small part of that of Perth.

IV. Gadeni.—Of these, all that Ptolemy says is, that they were situated more to the north. This can not mean, however, more to the north than the Damnii last mentioned, who, as we have seen, were placed along the sea-coast of what Ptolemy understands to be the north side of the island. The meaning must be, more to the north than the Otadeni, who are next mentioned, and are, by a corresponding epithet, described as more to the south. With the notion which Ptolemy had of the shape of the island, this would place the Gadeni along a tract in the interior, which might extend from the Tyne to the Forth, embracing the north of Cumberland, the west of Northumberland, the west of Roxburgh, together with the counties of Selkirk, Peebles, West Lothian, and the greater part of Midlothian. The town of Jedburgh, and the River Jed, seem still to preserve traces of their name.

V. Otadeni.—These, in Ptolemy's notion, lay to the south of the preceding tracts, but, in reality, to the southeast of it, and would occupy the space intervening between it and the seacoast, comprehending the remainder of Northumberland and Roxburgh, and the whole of Berwick and East Lothian.

VI. Epidii.—These lay east (that is, north) from the Damnii, but more northerly (that is, westerly), stretching eastward (that is, northward) from the promontory Epidium. The promontory in question is undoubtedly the Mull of Cantyre; and the Epidii, therefore, were the inhabitants of the district of Cantyre, and of nearly all the rest of Argyleshire, from the Frith of Clyde on the east, to Loch Linnhe on the west.

VII. Cerones.—These were next to the Epidii, and are supposed to have inhabited the part of Argyleshire to the west of Loch Linnhe, and the continuation of the same tract forming the western half of Inverness. The Creones are described as

lying to the east (that is, to the north) of the Cerones, and occupied probably almost the whole of the present shire of *Ross*. But it may be doubted if the Cerones and Creones were not the same people, in which case their territory must have included the whole space we have assigned to the two.

VIII. Carnonacæ.—These appear to have occupied the western coast of Sutherland, including probably a small portion of the northern part of Ross.

IX. Careni.—These lay beyond the former, and may be supposed to have inhabited the north coast of Sutherland, and perhaps a small portion of Caithness.

X. Cornavii.—These lay beyond the preceding, and are said to have been the last people in that direction. They therefore occupied the north and east of Caithness.

XI. Caledonii.—These are the next people mentioned by Ptolemy; but the enumeration here starts from a new point, namely, from the Lelaanonian Bay, on the western coast, now Loch Fyne. The Caledonii are described as extending from that bay across the country to the æstuary of Varar; and they therefore occupied the eastern portion of Inverness, with probably the adjoining parts of the shires of Argyle, Perth, and Ross. In the northwestern part of this tract was the great Caledonian forest.

XII. Cantæ.—These were more to the east (that is, the north), and are supposed to have possessed the eastern angle of Rossshire, included between the Murray and Dornoch Friths.

XIII. Logi.—These were between the Cantæ and Cornavii, and must therefore have occupied the southeast part of Sutherland, and probably a portion of the southern part of Caithness.

XIV. Vacomagi.—These are described as lying to the south (that is, the southeast) of the Caledonii, and appear to have occupied the counties of Nairn, Elgin, and Banff, with the west of Aberdeenshire, and perhaps a small portion of the eastern part of Inverness.

XV. Venicontes.—These appear to have occupied the whole of the peninsula, now forming the counties of Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan, with a portion of the east and southeast parts of Perth, and probably, also, the counties of Forfar and Kincardine. Richard of Cirencester, however, places the tribe of the Horestii (called by Tacitus Horesti) in the peninsula of

Fife. All that appears with regard to the situation of the Horestii, from the narrative of Tacitus, is, that they lay somewhere between the Grampian Hills and the previously-conquered nations to the south of the *Forth*. They seem to be included by Ptolemy under the name of the Venicontes.

XVI. Texali.—These are described as lying to the south of the Vacomagi, and to the east (that is, the northeast) of the Venicontes. Their territory corresponded to the present Aberdeenshire, with, perhaps, a part of Kincardine.

XVII. Attacotti.—These are mentioned by Ammianus Marcellinus; but it is very doubtful whether they were a British or an Irish nation. A territory is found for them, on the authority of Richard of Circnester, in the space between Loch Fine and Loch Lomond, comprehending a portion of Argyle and the greater part of Dumbartonshire.

XVIII. Mæatæ.—This name is mentioned by some later writers, but does not occur in Ptolemy. Different interpretations have been given of its meaning. It appears to have been a collective name given to the tribes included between the wall of Antoninus and that of Severus. These tribes were the Novantæ, the Selgovæ, the Gadeni, the Otadeni, and, in part, the Damnii. In a loose way of speaking, the names Mæatæ and Caledonii seem to have come at length to be used as a general expression for all the tribes beyond the more limited Roman province, the Mæatæ being understood to mean the inhabitants of the comparatively level and open country, and the Caledonii those who dwelt among the woods and mountains of the north and west. From about the beginning of the fourth century we begin to find the Caledonians and Mæatæ giving place to the new names of the Scots and Picts.

13. MAIN DIVISION OF BRITANNIA.

Britain was divided by the Romans into two main parts, one called *Britannia Romana*, or *Provincia Inferior*, the other *Britannia Barbara*, or *Provincia Superior*.

(A.) BRITANNIA ROMANA.

I. The name of *Britannia Romana* was applied to that part of the island which answered to what is now called *England* and *Wales*, and it received this name from the circumstance

of its being completely subjugated by the Romans, and filled with Roman settlements. The rest of the island was called *Britannia Barbara*.

II. The boundary between Britannia Romana and Barbara was different at different times. In the reign of the Emperor Claudius, when the province was only beginning to be formed, it may be said to have comprehended only that part of the island which lay to the south of the Abus, or Humber, and east of the Sabrina, or Severn; and even portions of this extent were but incompletely subdued. Modern Wales, therefore, was as yet excluded.

III. In the reign of Hadrian, however, the wall erected by that emperor, from the River Tina, or Tyne, on the east, to Itunæ Æstuarium, or Solway Frith, on the west, formed the northern limit; and in the reign of Antoninus Pius this limit was extended still further north, the boundary between Britannia Romana and Barbara being then marked by the wall of this latter emperor, and which extended from Boderia Æstuarium, or the Frith of Forth, on the east, to the Glotta Æstuarium, or Frith of Clyde, on the west.

IV. The division here spoken of lasted until the fourth century of our era, when the subdivision into five provinces, already mentioned (page 169), appears to have taken place.

V. We now proceed to enumerate the cities and towns of Britain, following the old division of Britannia Romana and Barbara as the more convenient of the two.

Cities, &c., of Britannia Romana.

Cantii.

In the territory of the Cantii we find, 1. Durovernum, now Canterbury, on the River Sturius, now Stour. At the time of the Roman occupation this was a place of considerable importance, as is evident from the Roman military roads to Dover and Lymne, their two principal havens, the ancient Dubris and Lemanæ. The old British name seems to have been Durwhern, which the Romans Latinized by Durovernum, and it signified "a swift river," a name probably given to the place from the circumstance of the Stour running through the city with some rapidity. By the Saxons it was called Caer-Cant, or "the city of Kent," whence we have Cantuaria, the more

modern Latin form, and finally Canterbury. 2. Portus Lemanus, called, also, Portus Lemanianus, now Lymne, to the southwest of Dover. It is generally supposed that Cæsar landed here on his first expedition into Britain, after having set sail from the Portus Itius in Gaul. The place, however, where Cæsar first touched, and where steep cliffs skirted the shore, was probably near the South Foreland, and he landed somewhere on the flat shore which extends from Walmer Castle toward Sandwich. Some contend for Romney Marsh, or the neighborhood of Hythe. The question is whether Cæsar's "ab eo loco progressus" is to be understood of an advance toward the north or toward the southwest. Horsley shows that it must have been toward the north.

- 3. Portus Dubris, now Dover. By the Britons Dover was called Dufyr, from dufyrrha, "a steep place." The castle, which is on the northern side of the town, is supposed to have been originally constructed by the Romans. 4. Ritupæ or Rutupiæ ('Ρουτούπιαι), now Richborough, to the northeast of the preceding. In the Antonine Itinerary it is called "Ad Portum Ritupis," and in the Peutinger Table Ratupis. It would seem that Ritupæ is the nominative of Ritupis, as Dubræ of Dubris, and Lemanæ of Lemanis. Richborough is one of the noblest Roman remains in the island. It was the usual place of communication with the Continent, and guarded one mouth of the channel which then insulated Thanet. It stands on a small elevation, along the base of which flows the Stour, the ancient Sturius. The Roman walls still, in a great measure, remain. Ritupæ was famed for its oysters. 4. Durolevum, now, according to some, Newington, where are the remains of intrenchments, and where an abundance of Roman pottery has been dug up; but it is more correct to fix the site of this place on Judde Hill, in the parish of Ospringe, and this agrees better with the distances of the Itinerary. Here are the remains of a square camp, with the corners rounded off.
- 5. Durobrivæ, now Rochester, to the northwest of the preceding. In the Antonine Itinerary it is called Durobrivis. The name of this place is said to have been corrupted, in the later period of the empire, into Roibis (Roibæ), or, as we find it in the Peutinger Table, Raribis (Raribæ). From Roibis or Roibæ appears to have been formed the Saxon Hrof-Ceaster,

and from this the modern Rochester. Bede, however, derives Hrof-Ceaster from one Hrof, a Saxon chieftain. 6. Noviomagus, to the west of the preceding. Its site corresponds with Holwood Hill, near Farnborough, where are the remains of an immense elliptical encampment. Noviomagus is said, by Richard of Cirencester, to have been the capital of the Bibroci.

Of the Roman roads in the territory of the Cantii, the Watling Street, which nearly coincided with the present road from London to Canterbury, may be traced in several places. The branch of Watling Street which led from Durovernum to Lemanæ is still conspicuous for some miles. It preserves a straight course between the two places, and is known by the name of Stone Street.

Regni.

In the territory of the Regni we find, 1. Regnum, now Chichester, near the coast, and the chief city of the tribe. According to some, it corresponded to the modern Ringwood; but this is an error. Excavations made at Chichester in 1723, leave no doubt that this place answers to Regnum. 2. Anderida, a fortified sea-port, the situation of which has given rise to much controversy. It was placed by Cambden at Newenden in Kent, but that position has long since been abandoned by antiquaries. Anderida was one of the fortresses to keep a look-out toward the sea, and the Notitia informs us that it was garrisoned by a company of the Abulci. Newenden, on the other hand, never was a sea-port, or useful for such a purpose. More modern authorities have been divided between Pevensey, Eastbourne, and Seaford, and of these the claims of the last mentioned are probably the best.

Of the eight principal Roman roads, only one entered the territory of the Regni, namely, the *Ermin Street*, as it was afterward called, one branch of which from Londinium ran to Regnum or *Chichester*, while the other went through the more eastern parts.

Belgæ.

Among the Belgæ we find, 1. Venta Belgarum, the capital of the tribe, now Winchester. The Britons are said to have called it Caer Gwent, or "the White City;" the Romans

changed the latter part of the name to Venta, giving it more of a Latin form, and the Saxons, who were the next possessors, called it Wintanceaster, which has now become Winchester. This termination of -chester, applied to many cities in England, is a corruption of the Latin term castra, as applied to a military station or encampment. Under the Anglo-Saxons it took the form of Ceaster, and has now become -cester or -chester, indifferently. Winchester in Latin deeds, and by the modern Latin writers, is called Wintonia. This place appears to have flourished under the Romans, and the massy walls, composed of flints and mortar, which inclose the city, are considered to have been originally built by them. In 519 it was conquered by Cerdic the Saxon, who afterward made it the seat of his government, and it continued to be the capital of the West Saxon kings till Egbert, the first king of the whole Heptarchy, was crowned there; and then it may be said to have become the metropolis of England. It only fell from its high rank after the reign of King Stephen.

2. Clausentum, to the southwest of the preceding, and about a mile to the northeast of the present Southampton, on the eastern bank of the River Itchin. The precise spot is now occupied by Bittern Farm, where are still to be seen the traces of a fosse and vallum, which defended the place on the land side. The town of Southampton itself is of Anglo-Saxon origin, and is said to have been the scene of the memorable rebuke which Canute administered to his courtiers. 3. Vadum Arundinis, now Redbridge. 4. Brige, to the northwest of Clausentum, and the site of which is near what is now Broughton Farm. 5. Sorbiodunum, to the northwest of the preceding, and now Old Sarum. Its name, derived from the Celtic words Sorbio, "dry," and Dun, "a hill," leads to the conclusion that it was originally a British post. It was probably one of the towns taken by Vespasian when engaged in the subjugation of this part of the island under the Emperor Claudius. The number of Roman roads that meet at Old Sarum, and the mention of Sorbiodunum in the Antonine Itinerary, shows that the place was occupied by the Romans, but the remains present little resemblance to the usual form of their posts. New Sarum, which arose early in the thirteenth century, is now Salisbury.

6. Edlandunium, now Wilton. 7. Ischalis, to the south-

west of Sorbiodunum, now Ilchester or Ivelchester, from the River Ivel or Yeo, on which it stands. Ptolemy makes this one of the chief towns of the Belgæ. It was surrounded by the Romans with a wall and deep ditch, and the Roman road, subsequently called the Foss Way, passed through it from north to south. Various remains of antiquity have from time to time been discovered here. Under the Saxons, who called the place Givel-ceaster, it was also a city of note. 8. Aquæ Solis, to the northeast of the preceding, now Bath. Ptolemy calls it "Υδατα θερμά, whence some form another Latin name, Aquæ Calidæ. Richard of Circucester calls the place Therma, and the river on which it stands Abona, a name evidently identical with the Avon, on which Bath is situated. This city was a Roman station, and has always been famed for its natural hot springs, whence the Roman name is derived, as well as the Greek appellation given by Ptolemy. It appears from inscriptions dug up here, that Sulis was the tutelary goddess of Bath, and hence some think that the name Aqua Solis, as found in the Antonine Itinerary, is a blunder for Aquæ Sulis. In the Notitia this place is not mentioned. It was intersected by the ancient Roman road leading from Londinium into Wales, and by the road called afterward the "Foss Way." No city in England can produce such a collection of local Roman remains as Bath.

9. Abone, called by Richard of Cirencester Ad Abonam, and, according to the best modern authorities, now Britton in Gloucestershire. 10. Ad Sabrinam, now Portishead or Portbury, west of Bristol. 11. Avalonia, to the southeast, now Glastonbury. 12. Ad Aquas, called, also, Belga Uvella, and, at a later period, Theodorodunum, now Wells.

Durotriges.

Among the *Durotriges* we find, 1. *Durnovaria*, now *Dorchester*, called by Ptolemy Δούνιον (*Dunium*), and, in the Peutinger Table, *Ridunum*. It was the capital of the tribe. The Saxons are said to have called the place *Dornceaster*, whence the modern name arose. It was situated on the *Via Icenia*, called, subsequently, "Ickenild Street," and must have been a place of some importance in the time of the Saxons, as two mints were established here by King Athelstane. 2. *Vindo-*

cladia, called by Richard of Cirencester Vindelia, placed by some at Wimbourne, but more correctly by others at Gussage, between Blandford Forum and Cranbourne. 3. Ibernium, mentioned by the Ravenna geographer, and corresponding to the modern Bere Regis.

Damnonii.

Among the Damnonii we find, 1. Isca Damnoniorum, now Exeter. The best modern antiquaries are agreed as to the site of this place. The earlier antiquaries (Horsley, &c.) were misled by what is now admitted to be a corrupt reading in the Antonine Itinerary. Exeter is supposed to have been a settlement of the Britons before the Roman invasion. It was then, as is thought, called Caer Isc, and also Caer Rydh, the former derived from its situation on the *Isc*, called by the Romans *Isaca*. and now the Ex, and the latter from the red soil on which the castle is built. The Romans called it Isca Damnoniorum, to distinguish it from Isca Silurum, now Caerleon, in Wales. In the reign of Alfred it was called Exan-ceaster, "Castle on the Ex," whence its present name. 2. Moridunum or Muridunum, which is placed by the best modern authorities at Seaton, on the coast, but by others, less correctly, at Hernbury, near Honiton. 3. Ad Durium, to the southwest of the preceding, and answering, in all probability, to the modern Totness. It marked the Roman station on the Durius or Dorvatius, the modern Dart. 4. Tamara, to the west of the preceding, and probably at Tamerton Folliot, on the estuary of the Tamara, now the Tamer, some miles above Devonport. 5. Termolus, to the northwest of Isea, and coinciding, as is thought, with *Molland*, where there is a large ancient cairn, and to which a number of roads on all sides point. 6. Mostevia, supposed to have been near Hartland Point, the ancient Herculis Promontorium.

Atrebătii or Atrebătes.

In the territory of the Atrebatii we have, 1. Calleva Atrebatum, now Silchester, on the northern borders of Hampshire. Cambden seeks to identify it with Vindomis, but this latter lay more to the southwest, and its site is to be found at Finckley Farm. Calleva was a station of importance, and its remains

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are among the most entire in the kingdom. At a short distance northeast of the walls are the ruins of an amphitheatre. 2. Spina, to the northwest of the preceding, now Speen, the only Roman station in Berkshire the site of which has been satisfactorily settled, and yet, what is remarkable, no Roman remains appear to have been discovered here; none, at least, sufficient to show the existence of such a station. 3. Bibracte, to the east of the preceding, and fixed by Whitaker at Bray, though the distance between Londinium and Bibracte differs so much from that between London and Bray as to occasion great difficulty. 4. Pontes. According to Horsley, Old Windsor; but others prefer Staines in Middlesex. 5. Cunetio, to the west of Spinæ, now probably Marlborough, on the River Kennet. 6. Verlucio, to the southwest of the preceding, now, according to some, Leckham, on the Avon, while others fix its site at Sandy Lane.

Trinobantes.

In the territory of the *Trinobantes* we have, 1. Londinium, now London, on the Tamesis or Thames. Londinium was most probably a British town, that is, a large inclosure, protected by a rampart and fosse, previous to the invasion of the island by Cæsar, in whose time a considerable traffic was carried on between the Britons and the Gauls. But, though Cæsar crossed the Thames, he makes no mention of the place. first notice of Londinium occurs in Tacitus (Ann., xiv., 33), where it is spoken of as not then honored with the name of a colonia, but still as a place much frequented by merchants, and as a great depôt of merchandise. In the revolt of Boadicea (A.D. 62), Suetonius, the Roman commander, abandoned Londinium to the enemy, who massacred all the inhabitants that did not leave it with Suetonius; a circumstance which leads us to infer that it was then chiefly occupied as a Roman station. If any conclusion can be drawn from the brief notice of Tacitus, Londinium was then incapable of making any defence, and had probably no wall that could resist the enemy, though that historian mentions the want of soldiers as the cause of its being abandoned by Suetonius. It does not appear from Tacitus whether the place was then destroyed by the Britons. At a later date, Londinium appears to have been made a colonia

under the name of Augusta, or, more fully, Augusta Trino-The ancient wall of London, ascribed to Theodosius, governor of Britain, began at a fort near the present site of the Tower, and continued along the Minories to Cripplegate, Newgate, and Ludgate. The walls are said to have inclosed an area of somewhat more than three miles in circumference, and to have been guarded by fifteen towers. The Prætorium and its adjuncts are supposed to have occupied the site of the present Poultry and Cornhill, as tesselated pavements have been discovered there. With regard to Anglo-Saxon London our information is as scanty as it is with respect to the Roman city; but we may easily conceive that it must have fallen off greatly in appearance during the barbarous period that succeeded the final departure of the Romans from the island, when it was alternately attacked and ravaged by the Picts and Scots, the Saxons and Angles. In the sixth century it became the capital of the Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Essex.

2. Sulloniaca, a Roman station to the northwest of Londinium, and the site of which is generally fixed at Brockly Hill, between Edgware and Elstree. 3. Durolitum, another station, to the northeast of Londinium. Cambden fixes its site at Leyton, near Romford. This does not, however, accord with the distances of the Itinerary. 4. Cæsaromägus, to the northeast of the preceding. It was situate in the vicinity of the present village of Widford, which lies about a mile to the southwest of Chelmsford. 5. Canonium, to the northeast of the preceding, and near the modern Kelvedon. 6. Camulodunum, the capital of the Trinobantes, and the most important Roman station in their territory. The first Roman colony was established here in the reign of Claudius, consisting of veterans. There has been much difference of opinion with regard to the position of Camulodunum, and three different sites have been proposed, namely, Walden, Maldon, and Colchester. For Walden little seems to be urged except the pleasantness of the situation, an attribute which Tacitus ascribes to Camulodunum. For Maldon there appears to be little evidence except the resemblance of the name, and the opinion of Cambden; while abundance of Roman antiquities, the pleasantness of its situation, the agreement of its distance from London with that given in the Antonine Itinerary, and the termination of its name, -chester, a

usual indication of a Roman station, agree in supporting the claim of Colchester.

Icĕni or Simĕni.

In the territory of this tribe we have, 1. Venta Icenorum, the name of the tribe being added to distinguish it from several other British towns, to which the name of Venta was common. It was the capital of the tribe, and corresponds to the modern Caister St. Edmund's, about three miles south of Norwich. There are still some remains of the ancient city on the right bank of the Taes, which joins the Yare. The Romans made Venta their principal post on this side of the island. 2. Branodunum, now Brancaster, to the northwest of the preceding, on the shore of the Metaris Æstuarium, or The Wash. It was one of the stations of the cavalry under the Comes Litoris Saxonici ("Count of the Saxon Coast"). There are some remains of this place. The station was just at the foot of the declivity that overlooks the marshes: the area was about eight acres. Numerous relics of antiquity have been dug up here. 3. Gariannonum.—This was another of the posts of cavalry under the same officer. Its position, however, has been much disputed. Spelman proposed to fix it at Caistor, at the northern end of the "denes" or flats along the shore by Yarmouth, from which town Caistor is distant about two miles. But, although the name would lead us to fix a Roman post here, yet it is unlikely to have been a post for cavalry, or the chief station for the district. Burgh Castle, in Suffolk, has been fixed upon by most antiquaries; but, though the remains show it to have been a fortification of importance, it could hardly have been suited, situated as it then was on an island, for a post of cavalry. Another locality has consequently been proposed, namely, Whetacre or Whitaker Burgh, on the Norfolk side of the Waveney, on the extreme point of the peninsula formed by the two great branches of the æstuary, now the valleys of the Waveney and the Yare.

4. Iciani, now probably Ickburgh, four miles east of Methwold.
5. Ad Taum, to the south of Venta, now Taesburgh.
6. Sitomagus, to the southeast of the preceding, and on the coast, now Dunwich. Others, less correctly, seek to identify it with Thetford.
7. Cambretonium, to the southwest of the

preceding, now Grundesburgh. 8. Camboricum, to the northwest of Camulodunum, now Cambridge. The distances given in the Antonine Itinerary and by Richard of Cirencester do not indeed exactly suit here, but these have probably been corrupted. Camboricum was situate on the great Roman road called Via Devana, which connected Camulodunum with Deva, now Chester, on the western side of the island, at the mouth of the Deva, now the Dee. 9. Durolipons, to the northwest of the preceding, now Godmanchester, on the same great Roman road.

Catyeuchlāni.

In the territory of this tribe we have, 1. Verulamium, close to the present St. Alban's, being separated from it by the small River Ver, a feeder of the Coln. Verulamium was probably at first a British town, and then a municipium under the Romans. The Roman road, called by the Saxons the Watling Street, was also styled by them Werlaem Street, because it first went direct from Londinium to Verulamium, passing close under its walls. This place was the scene of dreadful slaughter in the great revolt under Boadicea, who destroyed here and at Londinium, as well as other places, about 70,000 Roman citizens and their allies. The town was, however, restored, and continued to be a principal Roman station while that people possessed the island. Here an eminent citizen, Alban, is said to have suffered martyrdom in the persecution under Diocletian; and from him the modern town derives its name, a monastery for one hundred Benedictines having been erected here in his honor by Offa, king of Mercia, A.D. 793. Verulamium is commonly, though erroneously, supposed to have been the capital or stronghold of Cassivellaunus, which was stormed by Cæsar.

2. Forum Dianæ, to the northwest of the preceding, now Dunstable. Some make Dunstable correspond to the ancient Durocobrivæ, but the site of this last-mentioned place is rather to be sought at Maiden Bower, a short distance further on. Both these places were on the Watling Street. 3. Magiovinium, to the northwest of the preceding, and on the same Roman road. It is now Fenny Stratford. 4. Lactodurum, to the northwest, following the same road. Cambden seeks to fix the site of this place at Stony Stratford, but more modern an-

tiquaries make it coincide with Towcester in Northamptonshire, and this is the preferable opinion.

Dobūni.

In the territory of this tribe we have, 1. Durocornovium, called, also, Corinium Dobunorum, the capital of the tribe. The latter name was changed by the Saxons into Corin ceaster, whence the modern appellation Circucester. It was situate on the River Corinus, now the Churn, one of the feeders of the Thames. Durocornovium was a place of considerable importance during the Roman occupation of Britain, and three Roman roads meet here, namely, the Foss Way, the Ermin Street, and the Ickenild Way. Its walls, of which partial traces still exist, were, during Roman times, two miles in circumference. 2. Glevum, now Gloucester, on the Sabrina or Severn, and in a northwestern direction from the last-mentioned place. The origin of this city is generally attributed to the Britons, by whom it was called Caer Gloew, which, according to Cambden, means "the Fair or Beautiful City," but, according to other authorities, from Gloew, the name of the chief or original founder. Shortly after the invasion of the country under the Emperor Claudius, A.D. 44, this place became subjected to the Romans, who established a colony here as a check upon the Silures, or inhabitants of South Wales, and called it Colonia Glevum, and also Claudia Castra. It fell subsequently into the hands of the Saxons, about A.D. 577, and by them was called Gleau ceaster, whence its present name is derived. 3. Branogenium or Branovium, to the north of the preceding, and now Worcester. It was situate on the Sabrina or Severn. Of its history while under the Roman sway, little is accurately known. During the Heptarchy it was the principal Mercian see, and the inhabitants of the district were under ecclesiastical government. The etymology of the name "Worcester" is with some plausibility deduced from "Wyre-Cestre" (corrupted from Ceaster), i. e., the Camp or Castle of Wyre, under which name a considerable forest still exists in the neighborhood of Bewdley.

Silūres.

In the territory of this tribe we have, 1. Venta Silurum, now Caerwent, a Roman station of considerable importance, but

now an inconsiderable village. The place appears to have been of British origin, and to have been called Caer Gwent, or "the White City," out of the latter part of which the Romans formed their name Venta, as in the case of Venta Belgarum, or Win-2. Blestium, to the north of the preceding, now Mon-After Roman times, the Saxons occupied and fortified this place, to maintain their conquests between the Severn and the Wye, and to prevent the incursions of the Welsh. 3. Ariconium, to the north, now Weston, according to the best authorities, although its position has been much disputed. 4. Magnæ, to the northwest of the preceding, now Kentchester. The position of this place also has been much disputed. 5. Gobannium, to the west of Blestium, and now Abergavenny. The ancient name is derived from that of the River Gobannius, now the Gavenny. 6. Burrium, to the southeast of the preceding, now Usk, on the river of the same name, anciently called the Isca. 7. Isca Silurum, to the southwest of the preceding, now Caerleon. It was the station, under the Romans, of the second legion, and hence the name of Legio Secunda Augusta also given to the place, whence arose the modern name Caer Leon, or "the City of the Legion." It was situated on the Isca, now the Usk. Caerleon is mentioned in the legends of King Arthur as a place of great splendor and importance. A description of it, at a later period, the twelfth century, by Giraldus Cambrensis, gives a lively picture of its former consequence. 8. Bomium or Bovium. The site of this station is fixed by some at Boverton, a village a few miles south of Cowbridge, and not far from the sea. Others, however, more correctly, place it at Ervenny, near Bridgend, being induced by Roman remains discovered here. Neither place, however, accords exactly in respect of distance from Nidum, the next station, with the existing copies of Richard of Circhester. Nidum may be safely identified with Neath, situate on the River Nedd or Neath, the ancient Nidus.

Dēmētæ.

In the territory of this tribe we have, 1. Maridunum, now Caermarthen. In the time of Julius Frontinus, A.D. 70, a Roman station is said to have been founded here, the site of which is supposed to be that subsequently occupied by the castle and

its outworks. The form of the camp is still marked by vestiges of stone and earth works. The remains of another camp, supposed to have been the castra astiva, or summer camp of the soldiers on the station, are still visible in a field on the northern side of the town. This place was afterward the residence of the princes of South Wales. 2. Ad Vigesimum, to the west of the preceding, now Castle Flemish. 3. Menevia, to the west of the preceding, called, also, Menapia, now St. David's.

Ordovīces.

In the territory of this tribe we have, 1. Mediolanium, as Ptolemy calls it (Μεδιολάνιον), or Mediamanum, as it is named by the Ravenna geographer. The exact site of this place has not been ascertained, although it is thought by the best antiquaries to have been in Montgomeryshire. It is generally supposed to have been on the banks of the Tanad, and to coincide with the modern Clawdd Goch. 2. Segontium, near Caernarvon. remains of the station itself, which consist of some fragments of the wall, are known by the name of Caer-seiont, and are about a mile from Caernarvon, on the banks of the Seiont. The island of Mona, now Anglesey, lay opposite. A Roman road from Maridunum to Segontium may still be traced. now called Sarn Helen, or Sam y Heng, and is supposed to mean "the Road of the Legion." 3. Conovium, to the northeast, on the River Toisobius or Conway. Some antiquaries have proposed to fix the site of this place at the city of Conway, but the general opinion identifies Conovium with Caer-Rhun, five miles higher up the river. 4. Vara, to the east of the preceding, at or near Bodfari, in the latter part of which name the Roman designation may be traced. 5. Bovium, to the southeast of the preceding, at or near Bangor, on the River Deva, now the Dee.

Cornāvii.

In the territory of this tribe we have, 1. Deva, now Chester, on the River Deva, now the Dee. It was the station of the twentieth legion, and its modern name (a corruption of castra) has reference, as usual, to the fact of its having been a Roman military post. This place was evidently the most considerable one in a large tract of country in Roman times, and so contin-

ued when the Romans had withdrawn their forces, and its possession became an object of importance to both the Saxons and the Britons. In the Saxon chronicle we are told that Ethelfrid, king of Northumbria, took it from the Britons in A.D. 607. After that date it was again in the hands of the Britons; and finally, in A.D. 830, it fell under the power of Egbert. 2. Condate, to the east of the preceding. Its site is marked by a field called Harbor-field, in the parish of Kinderton. 3. Mediolanum, to the southeast of the preceding, now Chesterton. 4. Rutunium, now Rowton, ranked by some among the cities of the Ordovices. It lay in a southwest direction from the preceding. 5. Uriconium or Viroconium, one of the principal Roman stations among the Cornavii, situate on the Sabrina or Severn, and about sixty miles to the southeast of the present city of Shrewsbury. It is now Wroxeter. 6. Salopia, so called in the "Notitia," and now Shrewsbury. It has been supposed that when the Britons found Uriconium fully in possession of the Romans, they established this place in its vicinity as a stronghold. Its Welsh name was Pengwern. On the conquest of the town by the Anglo-Saxons, it received the appellation of Scrobbes-byrig, importing that it was a town in a scrubby or brushy spot, and of this the modern "Shrewsbury" is a corruption.

7. Pennocrucium, to the northeast of Uriconium. The site of this place seems to be best fixed on the River Penk, near Stretton. This position accords tolerably well with the distances, in the Itinerary, from Uriconium and Etocetum, and does not require the corrections which are necessary if Pennocrucium is fixed, as some have proposed, at Penkridge. 8. Etocetum, to the southeast of the preceding. The site appears to have been at Wall, near Lichfield. 9. Manduessedum, to the southeast of the preceding, now Mancester.

Corităni.

In the territory of this tribe we have, 1. Tripontium. The site of this place is fixed, by the best authorities, at Dovebridge or Dowbridge, on the Watling Street. 2. Venonæ, to the northwest, at or near High Cross, where the Watling Street and the Fosse Road intersect. 3. Ratæ, as written in the Itinerary, or 'Pá $\tau \varepsilon$, as given by Ptolemy, now Leicester. This place

is said to have been called by the Britons Caer Leirion, meaning "the city on the (river) Leire," which is now the Soar. The Saxons altered this name to Lege-ceaster or Legeo-ceaster, whence the present name. Geoffrey of Monmouth says it was called Caer-Leirion from the fabulous Leir, its founder, the son of Bladud, and the Lear of Shakspeare. 4. Verometum, to the northeast of the preceding, near Willoughby, on the road from Leicester to Newark. 5. Derventio, to the northwest, on the Darventus, now Derwent. Its site is marked by the present hamlet of Little Chester. 6. Ad Pontem, to the northeast of the preceding, and on the River Trent. Its site has been fixed near Southwell. 7. Margidunum, a little to the southwest of the preceding, probably near East Bridgeford, on the south bank of the Trent, between Nottingham and Newark. 8. Lindum, to the northeast of the preceding, now Lincoln. It was a British town before it became a Roman station, and it stood at the intersection of the two great roads in this quarter, namely, the eastern branch of the Ermin Street and the Foss Way. The station was on the hill now occupied by the Cathedral and the Castle: its form was that of a parallelogram, the sides nearly facing the four cardinal points, and on each side was a gate. The walls have been almost entirely levelled with the ground, and the gates, with one exception, have been long since demolished. The remaining gate, now called "Newport Gate," is one of the most remarkable Roman remains in the kingdom.

Brigantes.

Beginning from the wall of Hadrian, and proceeding in a southern direction, we have, on the eastern side of the territory of the Brigantes, the following places: 1. Corstopitum, near Corbridge, on the River Fine. 2. Vindomāra, to the southeast, at Ebchester. 3. Epiacum, to the southeast of the preceding, now Lanchester. 4. Vinovia, to the southeast of the preceding, now Bincester. 5. Caturactonium, to the southeast of the preceding, now Catterick. 6. Isurium, to the southeast of the preceding, now Aldborough. 7. Eborācum, to the southeast of Isurium, now York. The British appellation of this place was most probably Eburac or Eborac, a name of Celtic origin, and supposed to signify "a town or fortified place on the banks of a river, or near the confluence of waters." It stocd

on the banks of the Ouse. This place was converted into a military station by Agricola, or one of his generals, during the second campaign of that commander in Britain, about A.D. 79, when he marched through and subdued the whole country of the Brigantes; its original Celtic appellation being retained in the Latinized form of Eburacum or Eboracum. It appears to have very soon become the principal Roman station of the north, and even of the whole province of Britain. Here, too, was the post of the sixth legion, whence the name Legio Sexta Victrix, sometimes given to the station. This legion came into Britain in the time of Hadrian, and Eboracum remained its head-quarters until the Romans departed from the island. The ninth legion, which came over with the Emperor Claudius, had previously been stationed here, and of course continued here after its incorporation with the sixth. From the time of Septimius Severus, if not earlier, it was the residence of the emperors when they visited the province, and, in their absence, of the imperial legates. Here the emperors Severus and Constantius Chlorus died; and here, according to common belief, Constantine the Great was born; but this belief rests on very insufficient evidence. For its pre-eminence among the Roman stations in Britain, Eboracum was indebted, it is probable, to its situation on the banks of a navigable river, in the midst of a remarkably extensive and very fertile plain, in the heart of the large district which lay between that part of the province of which the Romans had almost undisturbed possession, and that which they never could subdue, with the fierce hordes of which they were compelled to wage unceasing and doubtful warfare. Similar circumstances contributed to maintain the distinction which York enjoyed during many successive centuries.

8. Derventio, to the northeast of Eboracum, and the site of which is supposed to be near Stamford Bridge. 9. Belgovitia, to the southeast of the preceding, near Millington. 10. Pratorium, to the northeast, on the coast, now Flamborough. These three last-mentioned places were in the territory of the Parisii.

In the *interior* of the country of the Brigantes, we have the following places: 1. Luguvallum, just south of the wall of Hadrian, now Carlisle. It is supposed to have been of British origin. The modern name is said to be derived from the word Luel, a corruption of Luguvallum, to which the British word

Caer, "city," is prefixed. The place appears to have been first fortified about the time of Agricola. The Danes destroyed it about the end of the ninth century, and it remained desolate till after the Norman conquest. Its restoration and the erection of the castle are attributed to William Rufus. to the southeast of the preceding, near Plumpton Wall. 3. Brocavum, to the southeast of the preceding, fixed by Horsley and others at Brougham. 4. Brovonacæ, to the southeast, made by some to correspond to Brough, but more correctly placed by Horsley at Kirby Thore. 5. Vertera, to the southeast, now Brough. 6. Lutudārum, mentioned by the Ravenna geographer, is supposed to correspond to the modern Leeds. It is highly probable, indeed, that Leeds was a Roman station, for Roman remains have been found in various parts of the town. 7. Mancunium, now Manchester. Aldport, the original of Manchester, is supposed to have taken its rise in the reign of Titus. It seems that originally there was a British town in this quarter, called Mancenion, or "the place of tents." On the site of this town the Romans erected a military station, the name of which they made, by a slight change, Mancunium; and in the vicinity of this station Agricola induced the Britons to erect a new town, answering to what was subsequently Aldport, and eventually Manchester. This last-mentioned name arose from Man, the initial syllable of Mancunium, with the usual termination of cester or chester.

On the western side of the territory of the Brigantes we have the following places: 1. Glanaventa, now Ellenborough, at the western termination of Hadrian's wall. 2. Galāva, to the southeast of the preceding, now Keswick. 3. Alone, to the southeast, now Ambleside. 4. Galācum, to the southeast, near Kendal. 5. Bremetonacæ, to the southeast, near Tunstall. 6. Ad Alpes Penninas, now Broughton. 7. Coccium, called, also, Rigodunum, now Ribchester. It was the head-quarters of the twentieth legion.

14. ROMAN WAYS.

I. The old chroniclers give this name to four principal ancient highways, which they suppose to have been either originally formed by the Romans in Britain during their occupation of the country, or, at least, to have been completed and

perfected by that people upon lines of road for the greater part already traced and used by the former inhabitants.

II. The names, however, by which the four highways are distinguished appear to be Saxon in form, although they may be Roman or British in etymology, namely, Watling Street, Ikenild Street, Ermin Street, and Foss Way.

III. Watling or Gathelin Street, which is said to have been so called from a functionary of the name of Vitellianus (in British, Guetalin), to whom the care of it was committed (a most unsatisfactory and improbable etymology), is held to have extended from Dover to Chester; or, according to another hypothesis, to Chester-le-Street in Durham, passing through Canterbury, London, and Verulam (St. Alban's), from which lastmentioned town it had also the name of Werlaem Street. Its remains, or supposed remains, are still known in various places by the names of High Dyke, High Ridge, Ridge Way, and Forty-foot Way.

IV. There has been much controversy, however, as to whether Watling Street did actually pass through London. Stukely, in particular, contends that it crossed what is now called the Oxford Road at Tyburn, and proceeded to the west of Westminster, through Hyde Park and St. James's Park to the Thames, which it crossed at Old Palace Yard. The common opinion, however, is, that it passed along the line of what is still called Watling Street, in the city, meeting the other three great roads at the central milliarium in Cannon Street, pointed out by the site of London Stone, and crossing the river at Dowgate to what is still called Stony Street on the Surrey Side. northward course of Watling Street, after leaving London or its neighborhood, is supposed to have been over Hampstead Heath to Edgeware, and hence through Verulam (or St. Alban's), and Dunstable in Bedfordshire, to Stony Stratford in Northamptonshire, whence it skirted Leicestershire on the west to Bosworth. From this point its course is disputed, some making it proceed in a northwestern direction to Chester, others carrying it due north to York, and thence to Chester-le-Street; whence some imagine it to have been latterly extended to Lanark and Falkirk in Scotland, or even as far as to Caithness, at the extremity of the island.

V. Ikenild or Ichenild Street is said to have been so called

from its commencing on the eastern side of the island, in the country of the Iceni, of whom mention has already been made. On the supposition, however, of the London Stone having been the central milliarium, where all the great roads of the country met, a branch of the Ikenild must have extended to this point. It is supposed to have passed through Aldgate, and to have been otherwise known by the name of the Vicinal Way.

VI. The course of the Ikenild to the westward is extremely obscure. Nearly all that has been conjectured even on the subject is, that it crossed Watling Street at Dunstable, and thence extended in the direction of Staffordshire to the western coast. It seems most probable that, while Watling Street ran directly north to Chester-le-Street, the Ikenild crossed it obliquely to Chester; but the scanty remains of the one road have been confounded with those of the other.

VII. Ermin or Hermin Street derived its name most probably from the Saxon Herrmann, "a warrior," signifying that it was a military road. It is conjectured by some to have extended from St. David's, at the southwestern extremity of Wales, to Southampton, on the southern coast; by others to have stretched more directly across the country to London, which it may have entered by what is now called Holborn.

VIII. The Foss Way is supposed to have derived its name from the circumstance of its having had a ditch (fossa) on each side; and it appears from a Roman milliare, or mile-stone, found by its side near Leicester, to have been formed, or at least improved, by the Romans in the reign of Hadrian, and probably at or about the time of that emperor's visit to Britain. It has retained its name among all classes of people better than any other of the Roman roads. This road is supposed to have taken its course from southwest to northeast, beginning near Totness in Devonshire, and passing through Bristol, Cirencester (near which place it seems to have crossed Ermin Street), Chipping, Norton, Coventry, Leicester, and Newark, to Lincoln. If it was carried thence to London, it probably proceeded through Bishop's-gate Street.

15. ROMAN WALLS.

I. The object of these erections was to prevent the incursions of the barbarous Scottish tribes into the Roman province of

Britain. Of these, which were five in all, Agricola erected two, and Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, and Severus one each. With the exception, however, of the wall of Severus, the other works ought rather to be called mounds than walls, since they consisted principally of a bank and ditch, with a range of forts or stations at unequal distances.

II. The first of these works was constructed by Agricola, the celebrated Roman commander, in A.D. 79, between the *Itunæ Estuarium*, now *Solway Frith*, and the mouth of the River *Tina*, now the *Tine*. The second was constructed by the same in A.D. 81, considerably to the north of the first, between the *Glotæ Æstuarium*, now *Frith of Clyde*, and the *Bodotriæ* or *Boderiæ Æstuarium*, now the *Frith of Forth*. These two works, however, appear to have been insufficient to restrain the progress of the barbarians after the departure of Agricola from the island, A.D. 85, and accordingly, in A.D. 120, the Emperor Hadrian planned and executed a much stronger and more important work.

III. Hadrian selected the same part of the island along which the first wall or mound of Agricola had been drawn, namely, the tract of country between Solway Frith and the mouth of the Tine. He dug an additional and much larger ditch, and raised a higher rampart of earth, making his new works run in nearly parallel lines with the old ones of Agricola. It began from Tunocelum, now Boulness, on the Itunæ Æstuarium, now Solway Frith, near Luguvallium, now Carlisle, on the western coast, and was continued almost in a direct line to Segedunum, now Cousin's House, beyond Pons Ælii, a distance of rather more than sixty-eight English, or seventy-four Roman miles.

IV. Hadrian's work consisted of a principal agger, or vallum, that is, a rampart of earth, about ten or twelve feet high; a ditch, on the north of this vallum, nine feet deep and eleven feet wide; an agger twenty feet on the north side of this ditch; and an agger, without a ditch, five feet on the south of the principal agger, and nearly of as large dimensions. This work was garrisoned by soldiers, stationed at proper intervals in forts.

V. Twenty years after this, A.D. 140, Lollius Urbicus, under the Emperor Antoninus Pius, having reconquered the Mæatæ, restored the second wall of Agricola, which is commonly

called the "Wall of Antoninus," or Vallum Antonini. This work consisted of a ditch about twelve feet wide, the principal agger, or vallum, on the south brink of the ditch, the foundations of which are twelve feet thick, but the height is unknown, and a military way on the south of the vallum. There were forts or stations along the line, amounting in all to nineteen, the mean distance between station and station being rather more than two English miles. In the position of the forts, the Romans, both here and in their other works of a similar kind, always chose a high and commanding situation, whence the country could be discovered to a considerable distance, contriving, as far as circumstances would admit, that a river, morass, or some difficult ground, should form an obstruction to any approach from the front. Forts were also placed upon the passages of those rivers which crossed the general chain of communication. A very considerable proportion of this intrenchment may still be traced. The modern name is Grimes Dyke, the word Grime, in the Celtic language, signifying "great," or " powerful."

VI. But the greatest work of all was that of the Emperor Septimius Severus. It was begun A.D. 209, and finished the next year, and was only a few yards to the north of Hadrian's wall. This great work consisted of a ditch, the dimensions of which are not known, except that it was in all respects larger and wider than that of Hadrian, and on its south brink stood the wall, not a mere mound of earth like the rest, but built of solid stone, and cemented with the strongest mortar. The height of this wall was twelve feet, besides the parapet, and its breadth eight feet, and it was defended at intervals by fortresses of three different kinds. Those called stationes were very strong garrisons, the least of them being capable of containing six hundred men, and having a town without their The number of these was not less than eighteen, at an average distance of four miles from each other, but placed with some irregularity, according to the nature of the surrounding country and the exigency of defence. Besides these, there were very strong forts, called castella, in the intervals of the stations, eighty-one in number, and at the distance of about seven furlongs from each other. These were exactly sixty-four feet square. Lastly, between every two castella were four turres,

or turrets, twelve feet square, three hundred and twenty-four in number, and three hundred yards distant from each other. These were used as watch-towers, and, being within reach of each other, communications could be made with the utmost facility. For convenience of relieving guards, there was a military way, made of square stones, the whole length of the wall on its south side, and communicating with each turret and castle; and at some distance south of this was another large military way, paved, also, with square stones, communicating from station to station. The whole body of forces employed to garrison this stupendous work was not less than ten thousand men, sixteen hundred of whom were cavalry, and six hundred mariners, at the points where the ramparts communicated with the shore.

16. STATIONS ALONG THE WALLS OF HADRIAN AND SEVERUS.

These stations lie in Northumberland and Cumberland, and will now be briefly enumerated: 1. The first station, Segedunum, is generally fixed at Cousin's House, Wall's End, between Newcastle and Tynemouth. There are no remains. 2. The second station, Pons Ælii, was, in the opinion of most antiquaries, at Newcastle; but Cambden was induced by the name to fix it at Ponteland, which is north of the wall, on the River Pont, seven and a half miles northwest of Newcastle. 3. The third station, Condurcum, is fixed at Benwell Hill, an eminence two miles or two and a half miles from Newcastle. There are very distinet traces of this station above the village of Benwell. 4. The fourth station, Vindobala, is fixed at Rutchester or Rouchester. The ramparts of this station, which was large, are very visible. 5. The fifth station, Hunnum, was at Halton-Chesters. 6. The sixth station, Cilurnum, was at Walwick-Chesters, close on the right or west bank of the north Tyne. The ground within the vallum is crowded with the ruins of stone buildings, which formed apparently two streets from east to west, and a third cross street from north to south. 7. The seventh station, Procolitia, was on an open, elevated spot at Carraw-burgh. 8. The eighth station, Borcovicus, is fixed at House Steads. This is the most perfect, and the grandest station of the whole line. It is on an elevation, with a steep or precipitous descent toward the north, and a gentler declivity toward the south. It comprehended fifteen acres, and had a large suburb on the south side. As many as twenty streets may be counted. 9. The ninth station, Vindolana, is generally placed at Little Chesters. The ramparts of this station are visible, but the ditch is nearly filled up. 10. The tenth station, Æsica, is at Great Chesters. The trenches and ramparts are well preserved. 11. The eleventh station, Magna, is fixed at Carvoran, close to the borders of Cumberland. 12. The twelfth station, Amboglanna, is fixed at Burdoswald. Traces of many Roman buildings are found here. The whole station is surrounded by a foss, and all the entrances are plainly seen. 13. The thirteenth station, Petriana, is now Cambeck Fort. 14. The fourteenth station, Aballaba, is fixed at Watch Cross. 15. The fifteenth station, Congavala, is fixed at Stanwicks. There are here only some traces of the ditch. 16. The sixteenth station, Axellodunum, is fixed at Burgh. 17. The seventeenth station, Gabrosentum, is fixed at Drumburgh, four miles from the termination of the wall. The site of the station is here perfectly plain. 18. The eighteenth station, Tunnocelum, is fixed at Boulness. Nothing is left of this station but the spot which marks it, upon a rock on the verge of Solway Frith, thirteen miles west of Carlisle.

(B.) BRITANNIA BARBARA.

I. The appellation Britannia Barbara was at first given by the Romans to all that part of the island which lay to the north of Hadrian's wall. When, however, Britannia Romana became more extended toward the north, and the new province of Valentia was formed, comprehending all the country between the wall of Hadrian or Severus and that of Antoninus, and embracing the territories of the Otadeni, Gadeni, Selgova, Novanta, and Damnii, an alteration took place in the mode of naming, and the appellation of Britannia Barbara was now given to that part of the island merely which lay to the north of the wall of Antoninus.

II. The Romans made three several attempts to establish themselves in Britannia Barbara, but without success. Hence the little information which we have respecting this part of the island. With the coast they were better acquainted, a Roman fleet having circumnavigated Britain in the time of Agricola.

III. In considering this part of the island, we will take the name of *Britannia Barbara* in its earlier sense, as embracing all the country north of the wall of Hadrian. Our enumeration will necessarily be a brief one.

Cities, &c., of Britannia Barbara.

In the territory of the Novanta we have, 1. Leucopibia or Casa Candida, now Wigton. 2. Rerigonium, now Strathnaver. 3. Novantum Portus, now Port Patrick

In the territory of the Selgovæ we have, 1. Carbantorigum, now Kircudbright.
2. Corda, now Old Cumnock. 3. Uxellum, near Drumlanrig. 4. Trimontium, near Lougholm.

In the territory of the Damnii we have, 1. Colanica, now Lanark. 2. Vandogara, now Paisley. 3. Coria Damniorum, now Castle Cary. 4. Victoria, now Kinross. 5. Lindum Damniorum, one of the stations of the rampart of Antoninus, now Kirkantulloch.

In the territory of the Otadeni we have, 1. Bremenium, now Rhichester. 2. Ad Fines, now Chew Green. 3. Curia, now Borthwick Castle.

II. HIBERNIA.

1. NAMES, &c.

I. The Greeks give us the earliest name of this island, namely, Hierne (Πέρνη). The Romans, on the other hand, called it either Hibernia or Juverna. Ptolemy names it Ἰονερνία.

II. The Romans never coveted the possession of this island, and hence, like the Greeks, they derived all their information respecting it from traders, who had sought its coasts for the sake of traffic. Ptolemy gives, nevertheless, some pretty correct notions in relation to this island; he only errs in placing it six degrees too far toward the north.

OBS. 1. In the various names of Ireland, as known to the classic writers, Iris, Iernis, Juvernis, Hibernia, &c., the radical Ir, or Eri, by which it is still known to its own natives, is plainly traceable. It is customary among the Irish to indicate a country by the affix Hy or Hua, sometimes

written O, as in the case of proper names, signifying literally "the (dwelling of the) sons or family of," such as Hy-Mania, Hy-Tuirtre, Hy-Brazil, &c. In adding this affix to names beginning with a vowel, it is optional to insert a consonant in order to prevent the concurrence of open sounds, Hy-v-Each, meaning the country of the descendants of Each or Eacus. Again, this affix requires the genitive, which in Eri is Erin, and thus in all variations of the name, from the Iris of Diodorus Siculus, and the Iriland and Ireland of modern times, to the Iernis (Hy-Ernis) of the Orphic Poems, and the Hibernia (Hy-b-Ernia) of the Latin writers, would seem to be accounted for.

2. The name Scotia does not appear to have been applied to Ireland till about the end of the third century, from which time till the beginning of the eleventh it continued to indicate that country exclusively.

2. EARLY INHABITANTS, &c.

I. The Scoti, who were in possession of Ireland at the time of the introduction of Christianity, appear to have been, to a great extent, the successors of a people whose name and monuments indicate a close affinity with the Belgæ of southern Britain. A people also called Cruithne by the Irish annalists, who are identifiable with the Picts of northern Britain, continued to inhabit a portion of the island, distinct from the Scoti, until after the Christian mission; and it is observable that the names of mountains and remarkable places in that district still strikingly resemble the topographical nomenclature of those parts of north Britain which have not been affected by the Scotic conquest.

II. The monuments and relics which attest the presence of a people considerably advanced in civilization at some period in Ireland, such as Cyclopian buildings, sepulchral mounds, containing stone chambers, mines, bronze instruments and weapons of classic form and elegant workmanship, would appear to be referrible to some of the predecessors of the Scoti, and indicate a close affinity between the earliest inhabitants of Ireland and that ancient people, by some incorrectly referred to a Phænician origin, whose vestiges of a similar kind abound throughout the south and southwest of Europe.

III. The Scoti were not builders in stone, at least in their civil edifices, nor did they use bronze implements. Their own tradition is, that they came originally from Scythia, by which is meant the northeastern part of central Europe, which appears to be confirmed by the fact that the ancient topography of the country, in districts where the Scotic invasion has not wholly obliterated it, points at the Welsh language as the nearest representative of that spoken by the predecessors of the Scoti, and that the chief distinctions which at present exist between the Irish and Welsh languages are referrible to a Gothic or northern European source.

IV. The general conversion of the Irish Scots to Christianity took place in the earlier and middle portion of the fifth century. The principal instrument in effecting the change was St. Patrick (*Patricius*), who landed in Ireland on this mission in the year 432. Before this time Christianity had made some progress, but the mass of the people were heathens.

V. A considerable advance in civilization followed the introduction of the new religion. Greek and Roman literature got some footing among the clergy, and an improved system of architecture became requisite for religious edifices. The Irish round towers are now generally ascribed to an ecclesiastical origin, and are supposed to have been erected during the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries, which form, perhaps, the most prosperous epoch in the history of the country. From the end of the eighth century till the coming of the English in A.D. 1170, the disputes of the petty princes of the island, and the frequent depredations of the Danes, and other northern pirates, render the annals of Ireland a melancholy series of feuds and disasters.

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3. PROMONTORIES.

The principal promontories of Hibernia are as follows: 1. Borēum Promontorium (Βόρειον ᾿Ακρωτήριον), now Malin Head, in the county of Donnegal. 2. Venicnium Promontorium (Οὐενίκνιον ᾿Ακρωτήριον), to the southwest of the preceding, now Bloody Foreland, in the same county. 3. Rhobogdium Promontorium, to the southeast of Boreum Promontorium, now Fair Head, in the county of Antrim. 4. Isamnium Promontorium, on the eastern coast, now Killard Point. It lies facing the Isle of Man, the ancient Mona or Monarina. 5. Sacrum Promontorium (Ἱερὸν ᾿Ακρωτήριον), at the extremity of the eastern coast, now Grenore Point. 6. Notium Promontorium (Νότιον ᾿Ακρωτήριον), at the southwest extremity of the island, now Mizen Head or Cape Clear.

4. RIVERS AND ÆSTUARIES.

1. $Vid\bar{u}a$ ($O\dot{v}\iota\delta o\dot{v}a$), now the Foyle, forming at its mouth the æstuary of Lough Foyle. 2. Argita, now the Bann. 3. Logia, now the Lagan, running into Belfast Bay. 4. Vinderius, now the Newry, emptying into Carlingford Bay. 5. Bubinda ($Bov biv \delta a$), now the Boyne. 6. Libinius, now the Liffy. 7. $Ob\bar{v}ca$ ($Ob\bar{v}ca$), now the Avoca. 8. $Mod\bar{o}nus$ ($Mod\bar{o}ovog$), now the Slaney. Mannert erroneously makes this the Liffy. 9. Birgus ($Bi\rho\gamma og$), called, also, Brigus, though perhaps the true form of the name is Bargus. It is now the Barrow. 10. $Dabr\bar{o}na$ ($\Delta ab\rho\bar{w}va$), now the Lee, running into Cork Harbor. 11. Ivernus, now Kinmore River. 12. Dur ($\Delta o\bar{v}\rho$), running into what is now Dingle Bay. 13. Senus ($\Sigma\bar{\gamma}vog$), now the Shannon. 14. Ausoba ($A\dot{v}\sigma oba$ $\pi ora \mu \dot{v}g$), the æstuary now called Galvay Bay. 15. Ravius ($Pao\dot{v}log$), apparently the extended line of Lough Erne (mistaken for a river), which empties into Donnegal Bay.

5. PRINCIPAL TRIBES.

On the eastern and southern sides of the island we have, 1. Darini (Δαρινοί) or Darni, dwelling around the River Logia, now the Lagan, in the southern part of Antrim, and the northern parts of Down and Armagh. 2. Voluntii (Οὐολούντιοι), to the south of the preceding, and dwelling around what is now Dundalk Bay, in the county of Louth. 3. Eblani (Ἑβλὰνοι) or Blanii, to the south of the preceding, in the counties of Meath and Dublin, and the northern part of Kildare. 4. Cauci (Καῦκοι), to the south, in the southern part of Kildare, and in part of Wicklow. 5. Menapii, to the south, in part of Wicklow and Wexford. 6. Coriondi, to the south and southwest of the preceding, in the southern part of Wexford and of Kilkenny. 7. Brigantes, to the southwest of the preceding, in Waterford and part of Tipperary. 8. Usdiae (Οὐσόἰαι) or Vodiae, according to the common text of Ptolemy, to the southwest, and occupying part of the county of Cork. 9. Juverni (Ἰουέρνοι), less correctly called by some Uterni, in the southwestern corner of the island, and occupying a part of the counties of Cork and Kerry.

On the western side we have, 1. Velibŏri (Οὐελίδοροι), or, as they are called by some, Utellabri (Οὐτέλλαδροι), in part of the county of Kerry. 2. Gangani (Υαγγανοί), north of the Shannon, in the county of Clare. 3. Autiri (Αὐτειροί), to the north of the preceding, in the county of Galway. 4. Magnātæ (Μαγνᾶται), to the north, in the county of Mayo. 5. Erdīni (Ἑρδῖνοι), to the northeast of the preceding, in the counties of Sligo and Antrim.

On the northern side we have, 1. Venicnii (Οὐενίκνιοι), in the county of Donnegal. 2. Rhobogdii (Ῥυδόγδιοι), to the east of the preceding, and occupying

the county of Londonderry, the northern part of that of Antrim, and a small portion of that of Tyrone.

6. CITIES.

On the eastern coast we have, 1. Eblāna ("Eblana"), now Dublin. Mannert incorrectly places the site of this ancient city in the neighborhood of Dundalk. Dublin, in fact, appears to have been known by something approaching nearly to its present name in the second century, since it is found written Eblana in the geography of Ptolemy. The name is given in historical documents as Dublin, Dyflin, Dyvelin, &c., being all varieties of the Irish Dubh-linn, or "Black Pool," which appears to be the true etymology. It is also called, and is still generally known among the Irish by the name of Athcliath, which may be rendered Hurdle-ford, from the causeway laid on hurdles which formerly led to the channel of the river across the ooze at either side. 2. Menapia, now Wexford. Some less correctly consider the modern Ferns to correspond to Menapia. The ancient inhabitants of this quarter, namely, the Menapii, are supposed to have derived their origin from the people of the same name in Belgic Gaul, most probably through the Belgæ of Britain, and to be the people called by the Irish annalists Fir-Bolgs, which means "Viri Belgici," or Belgians.

On the western coast we have, 1. Juvernis or Iernis, corresponding, as is thought, to the modern Dunkenon. It was the capital of the Juverni. 2. Regia, to the northeast of the preceding, now Limerick. There were two places of this name in Ireland, one on what is now the River Culmore, in Armagh, and the other that which we are at present considering. Hence Ptolemy, in naming the latter, calls it $E au \epsilon p n \gamma a$ (the other Regia," or, as it is marked on the maps in Latin, Regia Altera. Mannert regards Regia in both cases as a Latin term (Græcized by Ptolemy) to denote the residence of a prince or leader. 3. Magnāta, to the north of the preceding, and the chief city of the Magnatæ. It is supposed to correspond to the modern Castlebar, in the county of Mayo.

III. INSULÆ BRITANNICÆ MINORES.

(A.) Islands in the Oceanus Britannicus (or English Channel) and the Fretum Gallicum (or Straits of Dover).

I. Vectis Insulæ (Οὐηκτις), now the Isle of Wight, on the southern coast of England, and separated from the mainland of Hampshire by a channel called the Solent Sea, and which Bede Latinizes by Pelagus Solvens. The modern name of the island is most probably a mere contraction of the ancient one, this last being pronounced Wectis or Ouectis, from which Wect was formed by contraction, and this became gradually changed into Wight. In the Domesday Book it is spelled Wect, Wict, and Wiht. Suetonius and Eumenius call the island Vecta, while Diodorus Siculus styles it Ictis. This island was known to the Romans long before the conquest of Britain, and their acquaintance with it was obtained through the Massilians, who visited it in prosecuting the tin trade. It was reduced under the Roman sway by Vespasian, during the reign of Claudius, A.D. 43. In 493 it was conquered by Cerdic the Saxon, who destroyed the original inhabitants, and replaced them by his own countrymen.

II. Tanetos or Tanetis, now Thanet, a part of the coast of Kent, insulated by the two arms of the River Sturius, now the Stour.

(B.) Islands in the Oceanus Hibernicus (or Irish Sea).

I. Mŏna, now the Isle of Man. This island has various ancient names. It is the Mona of Cæsar, the Monapia of Pliny, the Monarina (or, according to another reading, Monaæda) of Ptolemy, the Menavia of Orosius and Bede, and the Eubonia of Nennius. The name is probably derived from the British word mon, which means "isolated."

II. Mona (Mova), now the Isle of Anglesey, to the south of the former, and lying off the territory of the Cangi, or modern Caernarvonshire, from which it is separated by the Menai strait. It is the Mona of Tacitus, as the Isle of Man is the Mona of Cæsar. The modern name Anglesey (Angles' ey, i. e., Englishman's Island), was given to it by the Saxons. This island had, in early times, the names of Ynys-Dowell, "the shady or dark island," Ynys-Fon, "the farthermost island," and Ynys-y-Cederin, "the island of heroes." It was a great seat of Druidical superstition. Suetonius Paulinus, the Roman commander, landed here A.D. 61, in spite of the resistance of the natives, and the terrors which the Druids sought to strike into the hearts of the invaders. He cut down the sacred groves, and gave a blow to the Druidical superstition from which it never recovered. The island was abandoned by the Romans for a time, in consequence of the great revolt under Boadicea, and again conquered by Agricola, A.D. 76.

(C.) Islands in the Oceanus Occidentalis (or Atlantic Ocean).

 $Eb\bar{u}d\alpha$ (' $E6o\bar{v}\delta a\iota$), now the *Hebrides*, or Western Islands of Scotland. Pliny calls them *Hebudes*, and makes them thirty in number. They amount, however, in fact, to the number of nearly two hundred, but more than one half of them are so small or so sterile as not to be inhabited.

(D.) Islands in the Oceanus Deucaledonius (or North Sea).

I. Emŏda, as Mela calls them, or Acmoda, as they are termed by Pliny, now probably the Shetland Isles. Antiquaries have long disputed whether the ancient Romans saw the Shetland Isles when they circumnavigated Britain, and much learning has been advanced to connect the Thule of Tacitus, mentioned in the life of Agricola, with Shetland. The prevailing opinion now is, that Thule is a corruption of, or intended for Foula, one of the Shetland Isles, and the only one of them which, from the altitude of its hills and its detached position, can be seen from the seas immediately to the north of Orkney. Many, however, seek to identify the Thule of Tacitus with Mainland, the largest of the Shetland group. Thule was called ultima, "farthest," by the Roman writers, on account of its remote situation, and its being regarded as the limit of geographical knowledge in this quarter.

The Thule spoken of by Pytheas, the Greek navigator, must not be confounded with the Thule of Tacitus. The relation of Pytheas is singularly exaggerated in some of its particulars, as, for example, when he states that its climate was neither earth, air, nor sea, but a chaotic confusion of these three elements. From other parts of his narrative, however, many have been led to suppose that his Thule was modern Iceland or Norway. Mannert declares himself in favor of the former of these opinions, but D'Anville opposes it. Ptolemy places the middle of this Thule in 63° of north latitude, and says that, at the time of the equinoxes, the days were twenty-four hours, which could not have been true, however, at the equinoxes, but must have referred to the solstices, and therefore this island is supposed to have been in 66° 30′ north latitude, that is, under the

polar circle. The Thule of which Procopius speaks, D'Anville makes to correspond to the modern canton of *Tylemark* in Norway. The details of Procopius, however, seem to agree rather with the accounts that have been given of the state of ancient Lapland.

II. Oreades (' $O\rho\kappa \acute{a}des$), now the Orkney Islands, to the north of the northeastern extremity of Scotland. They are supposed to have been first discovered by the fleet of Germanicus, when driven in this direction by a storm. Agricola afterward made the Romans better acquainted with their existence as islands, separate from the main land of Britain, when he circumnavigated the northern coast of that country. Mela, following the oldest accounts, makes the number of these islands to be thirty, and this statement is received by subsequent writers, with the exception of Pliny, who gives forty as the amount. Orosius, in a later age, would seem to have had more recent information on this point, since he makes twenty of the group to have been inhabited, the number inhabited at the present day being twenty-seven. To the Orkney group belong Ptolemy's two islands of Ocetis (' $O\kappa\eta\tau\iota_S$) or Scutis ($\Sigma\kappa\dot{\tau}\iota_S$), now probably South Ronaldsha, and Dumna (\Deltaovuva), now probably Hav.

(E.) Islands in the Oceanus Verginicus (or St. George's Channel).

Cassiterides (Kassiterides), or "Tin Islands," now the Scilly Isles, but under the ancient name must also, for the reasons given below, be included the western extremity of Cornwall. The Cassiterides were famous for their connection with the tin trade of antiquity, which the Phænicians monopolized for so long a period, obtaining from this quarter their principal supplies of this metal. The name of these islands is derived from the Greek $\kappa assite \epsilon constant constant$

Obs. 1. The Sanscrit name for tin is kastira, from kásh, "to shine," "to be bright;" and since much tin is found in the islands on the coast of India, it is supposed that the Phemicians first got the name with the metal from this quarter, and subsequently applied it to the Scilly Isles and Cornwall when they began to procure tin from this part of the world also. From the Phemician or Sanscrit term the Greeks formed their κασσίτερος and Κασσιτερίδες.

2. Diodorus Siculus distinguishes between the Cassiterides and Britain, and speaks of tin as brought from both. Strabo also distinguishes between the Cassiterides and Britain. But it seems probable that the western extremity of Cornwall must be included in the term Cassiterides, and that the chief supply of tin was derived from it, for there are no traces of workings in the islands sufficient to countenance the opinion that much tin was ever obtained from them. The inaccuracy of the ancient writers may perhaps be accounted for by the two different channels by which the Cornish tin trade was carried on. One part of the metal was sent by sea to Spain: this was probably the most ancient course of the trade opened by the Phœnicians and their colonists in Spain and Africa. The merchants who carried it on knew of no other part of Britain than the western, to which they gave, with the Scilly Isles, the general designation of Cassiterides; hence Strabo and Diodorus both describe these islands by their position relative to Spain, instead of their situation with regard to the much nearer island of Britain, of the proximity to, and, indeed, identity of which with the Cassiterides they appear to have had no idea. Another part of the metal was conveyed over land by the Britons themselves, and thence, as Diodorus relates, to the opposite shore of Gaul, and on horses, over land, through Gaul to Massilia and Narbo: this tin, though from the same district as the other, was reputed to come from a different quarter, namely, from Britain. If the island Ictis ("IKTIS) of Diodorus, which was the emporium of the Gallic tin trade, and beyond which the merchants from Gaul do not seem to have gone, was the same as the Οὐῆκτις of Ptolemy, or the modern Isle of Wight (and of this there appears to be little, if any doubt), the remoteness of this from the tin country, to which the merchants of Spain went, will account for the two classes of traders not having fallen in with each other, and for their not having ascertained that their supposed different sources of supply were really one and the same.

3. It has been supposed, and with much probability, that the Cassiterides are the same with the Oestrymnides of Avienus. Dionysius Periegetes also speaks of them under the name of the "Hesperides, where is the origin of tin," Έσπερίδας, τόθι κασσιτέροιο γενέθλη (v. 563). The con-

quest of South Britain by the Romans must have led to the discovery of the proximity of the Cassiterides to Britain, if not of their identity with it. But neither Ptolemy nor Pliny the elder appears to have examined into the matter, for both describe the Cassiterides as being opposite to Spain, and do not notice them in their account of Britain. We gather from Pliny that the maritime or Hispano-Phœnician tin trade had ceased, for he speaks of the account of that metal being sought in certain islands of the Atlantic, and brought in wicker boats covered with leather, as a mere fable (H. N., xxxiv, 47). Indeed, he gives no intimation of any tin being found in Britain, though he speaks of the lead that was obtained there. It is not unlikely that the confusion caused by the Roman conquests in Gaul, Spain, and Britain had, for the time at least, put an end to both the working and sale of the metal.

4. From the time of the Romans, who used them occasionally as a place of banishment, there is no notice of these islands in history until their conquest by Athelstan, king of England, who

expelled the Danes about A.D. 938.

Having now completed our sketch of the Ancient Geography of Spain, Gaul, and Britain, we will take the Danube for a base-line, and will divide the countries of Europe that remain to be considered into two great classes, namely, those lying to the north of the Danube, and those to the south of the same stream.

I. COUNTRIES NORTH OF THE DANUBE.

These consist of the six following countries, proceeding from west to east, namely.

1. GERMANIA MAGNA.

2. SCANDINAVIA.

3. LAND OF THE IAZYGES METANASTÆ.

4. DACIA.

5. SARMATIA EUROPÆA.

6. CHERSONESUS TAURICA.

I. GERMANIA MAGNA.

1. EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.

I. The name Germania was used in a twofold sense by the Roman writers, the first as indicating Germania Cisrhenana, or that part of Gaul lying immediately south of the Lower Rhine, which was occupied by German tribes that had crossed over, and the second as referring to Germania Transrhenana, or Germany Proper, called, also, Germania Magna, and of which we are now to treat.

II. Germania Magna (Γερμανία ή μεγάλη) was bounded as follows: on the north by the Mare Suevicum or Baltic Sea, on the west by the Oceanus Germanicus or German Ocean and the River Rhine, on the south by the Rhine and the Danube, especially the latter, and on the east partly by the Montes Sarmatici or Carpa-

thian Mountains, and partly by the River Vistula.

III. To the north, therefore, Germania included the modern Denmark and the neighboring islands. Its boundaries on the east, however, must be regarded as merely nominal. How far, in fact, Germany extended toward the east is difficult to determine, since, according to Strabo, Germanic tribes dwelt nearly as far as the mouths of the Borysthenes or Dnieper.

2. NAME.

I. According to the account given by Tacitus, the name Germani is the Latinized form of the appellation assumed by the Tungri, the first German tribe that crossed the Rhine; and they gave themselves this name, as is said, in order to strike terror into their Gallic opponents.

II. Various etymologies have been given of the term in question, but the one most commonly received derives the name from the old German word Werr, "war," and Mann, "a man," so that Germani will be the same as Werrmänner, that is, "war-men" or "warriors," the Roman alphabet, in consequence of its not having any w, converting this letter of the German alphabet into a g.

OBS. The etymology just given is exceedingly doubtful. Von Hammer, the eminent German Oriental scholar, makes his countrymen to have been originally a Bactriano-Median nation, and the name Germani, or Sermani, in its primitive import, to have meant those who followed the worship of Buddha; and hence the Germans, according to him, are that ancient and primitive race who came down from the mountains of Upper Asia, and, spreading themselves over the low country more to the south, gave origin to the Persian and other early nations. Hence the name Dschermania, applied in early times to all that tract of country which lay to the north of the Oxus. The land of Erman, therefore, which was situate beyond this river, and which corresponds to the modern Chorasin, is made by Von Hammer the native home of the Germanic race, and the Germans themselves are, as he informs us, called Dschermani, their primitive name, by the Oriental writers, down to the fourteenth century (Wien. Jahrb., vol. ii, p. 319).

3. EARLY AND LATER INHABITANTS.

I. Modern inquiries, as just remarked, have traced the descent of the Germanic race from the inhabitants of Asia, since it is now indisputably established that the Teutonic dialects belong to one great family with the Latin, the Greek, the Sanscrit, and the other languages of the Indo-European chain.

II. The Greeks and Romans had very little knowledge of Germany before the time of Julius Cæsar, who met with several German tribes in Gaul, and crossed the Rhine more than once, rather with the view of preventing their incursions into Gaul than of making any permanent conquests. His acquaintance was, however, limited to those tribes which dwelt on the banks of the Rhine.

III. Under the early Roman emperors many of these tribes were subdued, and the country west of the Visurgis, now the Weser, was frequently traversed by the Roman armies. But at no period had the Romans any accurate knowledge of the country east of this river; and it is therefore difficult to fix with certainty the position of the Germanic tribes, particularly as the Germans were a nomad people.

IV. Tacitus divides the Germans into three great tribes: 1. Ingavõnes, bordering on the ocean. 2. Herminõnes, inhabiting the central parts. 3. Istavõnes, including all the others. Pliny makes five divisions: 1. Vindīli, including Burgundiōnes, Varīni, Carīni, Guttōnes. 2. Ingavones, including Cimbri, Teutōni, and Cauci. 3. Istavones, near the Rhine, including the midland Cimbri. 4. Hermiŏnes, inhabiting the central parts, including the Sucvi, Hermundūri, Catti, and Cherusci. 5. Peucīni and Bastarna, bordering on the Dacians.

V. The following list gives the positions of the principal tribes, as far as these can be ascertained.

1. Tribes on the Sea-coast.—Between the Rhenus or Rhine, and the Amisia or Ems, we find the Frisi. Between the Amisia and the Albis or Elbe, we have the Cauci, divided into Cauci Majores and Cauci Minores. East of the Albis we have the Saxones and Angli. The peninsula of Jutland, in this quarter, was anciently called the Cimbrica Chersonesus, from an erroneous impression that the Cimbri once dwelt there. The real country, however, of this race lay probably on the northeast side of Germany, and they appear to have been, not a German, but a Celtic race.

2. TRIBES ON THE RIGHT BANK OF THE RHINE.—Between the Frisii and the Luppia, now the Lippe, and bounded on the east by the Visurgis, now the Weser, we have the Bructëri, Chamāvi, Marsi, Dulgibīni, and Usipii or Usipētes. Between the Luppia and the Manus, now the Main, we have the Sigambri or Sicambri, Tenctēri, and Mattiāci. South of the Manus were the Alemanni.

3. Tribes on the left, or northern bank of the Danube.—Between the Danube and the Erzgebirge and Riesengebirge we have the Hermunduri, Narisci, Quădi, and Marcomanni, which last tribe dwelt in the districts previously inhabited by the Boii, but who had been driven out by them.

4. TRIBES IN THE CENTRAL PARTS.—The most powerful of these were the Suēvi, who occupied the greatest part of Germany, and were subdivided into several tribes. They extended from the Erzgebirge and Riesengebirge as far north as the Baltic, and included the Semnönes, Langobardi, Aviönes, Varini, Eudöses, Suardönes, and Nuithönes. To the southeast of the Cauci were the Angrivarii, and to the south of these the Cherusci and Chasuāri, and to the south of the Cherusci and Chasuāri, and Burii lay to the Chasuari were the Catti. The Marsigni, Osi, Gothini, and Burii lay to the east of the Catti, and are supposed to have inhabited part of Prussian Silesia. The Burgundiönes and Lygii dwelt on the banks of the Vistula, bounded on the south by the Carpathian Mountains, and on the west by the Riesengebirge.

OBS. Our information concerning the geography of ancient Germany is very scanty and uncertain. The Greek and Roman writers, from whom our knowledge of it is derived, knew very little about it themselves. A knowledge of the German Ocean and the northern parts of Europe had been acquired first by the Phœnicians and Carthaginians, who procured tin from the Cassiterides or from Britain, and amber from the shores of the Baltic; and in B.C. 400 by Himilco, the Carthaginian, whose voyage has been described by the poet Avienus (Plin., H. N., ii., 67); in B.C. 330, by Hccatæus and Philemon (Plin., H. N., iv., 13, or 27); and, about the same time, by Ephorus and Clitarchus (Strab., vii., 2, 1, p. 293); by Timerus, Xenophon of Lampsacus, Sotachus, Nicias, Xenocrates, Mithradates, and especially Pytheas of Massilia, who, in the year B.C. 320, sailed to Thule, and thence into the Baltic. (Strab., i., 4; ii., 3, 4; iii., 2; iv., 4, 5. Plin., iv., 16, or 27, 30; xxxvii., 2, or 11.) The knowledge which the Romans possessed of Germany and the western parts of Europe was derived principally from the expeditions of Cæsar, Drusus Germanicus, Germanicus, and Ahenobarbus. Drusus Germanicus, the brother of Tiberius, made four expeditions into Germany, and dug the canal between the Rhine and the Isala (Yssel). He was the first who navigated the German Ocean, but did not advance further than the mouth of the Amisia (Ems), in the territory of the Cauci. Germanicus, the son of Drusus (A.D. 14-16), made four expeditions into Germany, and advanced still further; he was shipwrecked on the territory of the Frisii (Ann., i., 49-52, 55-59, 60-71; ii., 5-26, 41-46). L. Domitius Ahenobarbus crossed the Elbe, and penetrated further into Germany than any of his predecessors. (Ann., i., 63; iv., 44. Suet., Ner., iv.) Tiberius advanced to the Arctic Sea (Ann., ii., 26, 47; xii., 39. Dio, Iv., 6, 8, 28; Ivi., 25. Suet., Tib., 9, 17, 18, 20. Vell., ii., 97, 104-110, 120). This expedition of Tiberius, however, Strabo (vii., 1, p. 291), and Tacitus himself (c. 34), attribute to Drusus Germanicus. On the south side of Germany the Romans made no conquests beyond the Danube; but they obtained some geographical knowledge through the journeys of the traders who procured amber from the shores of the Baltic, and from their wars with the Daci, Marcomanni, and other tribes on this frontier. Strabo wrote in the age of Tiberius, when the Romans possessed a more accurate knowledge of Germany than at any other time, through the expeditions of which we have just spoken. After this period the Romans were almost entirely shut out of Germany. Strabo, however, is exceedingly careless. He did not read even Cæsar's Gallic war with sufficient attention to understand it, and confuses almost every thing which he extracts from the accounts brought home by Pythcas. Our difficulties are, moreover, increased by the inaccuracy of the text. Pomponius Mela is worth nothing. Pliny, likewise, was very careless, as we see, even in what he says of Italy; we can not, therefore, look for much accuracy in his account of Germany. His work is principally valuable for the proper names. The imperfect character of the geographical knowledge which Tacitus possessed of Germany is manifest from his work upon the subject. Ptolemy has ventured to give a map of Germany, and to lay down the latitudes and longitudes of a number of towns and mouths of rivers. The greater part of these he never visited himself; and who, in that age, could have furnished him with the requisite information? Indeed, his map bears but a faint resemblance to the actual shape and features of Germany; and, in the majority of instances, it can with difficulty be determined whether the towns he mentioned existed at all. There is this additional disadvantage in his book, that he defines positions by numbers, which, of all things, are the most liable to alteration through the mistakes of the transcribers. One of the most valuable geographical monuments of antiquity, Antoninus's Itinerary, compiled under the direction of J. Cæsar and Antony or Augustus, is available only for a few roads on the frontier. The Peutingerian Table is frequently of use in making maps, since, though the countries are excessively distorted, the distances between the towns laid down on it are given; but it is of scarcely any service in the case of Germany. Inscriptions and coins, again, which afford some of the best means of defining the situations of places, are of rare occurrence in Germany. But, in addition to all these difficulties and disadvantages, the wandering and unsettled character of the Germans themselves renders it totally impossible to lay down a map which should represent the relative positions of the tribes at any one period, or for any length of time, though we can generally determine the position which individual tribes occupied at some time or other. This is seen from the wide discrepancies between Tacitus and his contemporaries, and Ptolemy, and from such glimpses as history affords us of the migrations of several of the tribes.

4. HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

I. THE Teutonic or German race come in from the east, and drive the Celtæ, who had preceded them, farther toward the west.

II. The Romans first become acquainted with them in B.C. 113, when, in conjunction with the Cimbri, and under the general name of *Teutones*, they appear on the confines of the Roman dominion, and defeat the consul Papirius Carbo. After this they make successive attacks on the frontiers, but are repelled by Marius, who defeats them in conjunction with the Ambrones, a Gallic tribe, at *Aquæ Sextiæ*, now *Aix*, in Southern Gaul, B.C. 102.

III. Julius Cæsar, having, at a subsequent period, subjugated Gallia, and penetrated to the Rhine, becomes acquainted with a nation then designated by the name of Germans. Ariovistus, a leader belonging to this nation, attempts to establish himself in Gaul, but is defeated by Cæsar, and compelled to flee beyond the Rhine.

IV. Cæsar twice crosses the Rhine in order to secure Gaul from the inroads of the Germans. He takes some of the latter into his army, and employs them against the Gauls, and afterward against Pompey. He himself is only acquainted with the tribes of the *Ubii*, *Sigambri*, *Usipētes*, and *Tenetēri*. He is told that the remaining part of Germany is inhabited by the Suevi, who possess a hundred districts, every one of which yearly sends out one thousand men on predatory expeditions.

V. The civil wars which divide the Romans withdraw their attention for some time from Germany, and the Sigambri ravage Gaul with impunity. After they have defeated Lollius, the lieutenant of Augustus (B.C. 15), that emperor himself hastens to the defence of Gaul, and, in order to oppose the inroads of the Germans, he erects several fortresses on the Rhine, and gives his step-son Drusus the command of the forces stationed on the banks of that river.

VI. Drusus makes several successful expeditions against the Germanic nations, and penetrates as far as the Elbe. On his death (B.C. 9), his brother Tiberius commands for two years the legions stationed on the Rhine, employing, however, policy rather than force against the Germans. He engages many of them to enter the Roman service, and being again intrusted (A.D. 4) with the same command, he penetrates as far as the banks of the Elbe.

VII. Germany now bids fair to become a Roman province, but the imprudence of Quintilius Varus, the successor of Tiberius, destroys all the advantages already gained. The violent measures which he adopts to change the manners and institutions of the Germans, cause a general conspiracy against the foreign invaders. Arminius, who has been educated at Rome, and has served in the Roman armies, is at the head of this conspiracy. The legions of Varus are attacked by the Germans in the forest of Teutoberg (A.D. 9), and entirely destroyed.

VIII. This defeat of the Romans is followed by the loss of all their conquests beyond the Rhine, and the Germanic nation of the Cherusci, among whom Arminius was born, become the most powerful people in Germany. Four years after this time, Germanicus restores for a period the fortunes of the Roman arms, but without regaining the former acquisitions.

IX. From this period the Romans seem to have abandoned the idea of extending their conquests in this direction, and to have contented themselves

with repelling the inroads which the Germans occasionally make on their frontiers. The Germans are also prevented from making any serious attempts against the Romans by the internal wars which distract them for many years. They again attack the Roman empire under Domitian, Nerva, and Trajan, the last of whom entirely defeats them.

X. From this time the attacks of the Germans on the Roman empire become more frequent and more formidable, and their history now becomes blended with that of the decline of the Roman empire, on the ruins of which they established several new states. These will be alluded to in the accounts given of individual tribes.

5. MOUNTAINS.

The principal mountain chains in Germany mentioned by the ancient writers are seven in number, namely,

1. Abnoba Mons,

3. Taunus Mons,

5. Melibocus Mons,

2. Alba Mons, or Alpes,

Rhetīco Mons,
 Sudēti Montes.

6. Asciburgius Mons,

I. Abnöba Mons, a name given to that part of the Black Forest where the Danube commences its course, and which lies opposite the city of Augst, the ancient Augusta Rauracorum. Ptolemy incorrectly makes it extend from the Manus, now the Main, to the sources of the Amisia, now the Ems. Tacitus and Pliny give its true position. Strabo and Mela make no mention of it.

II. Alba Mons, called also Alpes, a mountain range, now the Rauhe Alp, and extending from the sources of the Danube, along its northern bank, as far as the mouth of the Licus, now Lech. It separates the waters that flow into the Neckar, the ancient Nicer, from those that run into the Danube.

III. Taunus Mons, a mountain range to the northwest of Frankfort, and extending between Wiesbaden and Homburg. It is now called the Höhe, or the Heyrich. The Taunus range sinks with a steep descent toward the Main and Rhine, but gradually toward the Lahn on the north.

IV. Rhetico Mons, a mountain range now called the Rothhaargebirge, stretching off from the Siebengebirge, near Bonn, but on the opposite side of the Rhine, and extending to the sources of the Eder, the Lahn, and the Ruhr. Mela says (iii., 3), "Montium altissimi Taunus et Rhetico."

V. Melibõcus Mons (τὸ Μηλίβοκον ὁρος, as Ptolemy calls it), the range of the Hartz Mountains, in the most extensive sense of the appellation; not, as some think, the Brocken merely.

VI. Asciburgius Mons, the modern Riesengebirge, between the Elbe and the Oder. Ptolemy places this range too far to the north.

VII. Sudeti Montes, now the Fichtelberg, the Erzgebirge, together with the Thuringer Wald and the Lausitzer Gebirge. Ptolemy calls them $\tau \dot{\alpha} \Sigma o \dot{\nu} \delta \eta \tau a \delta \rho \eta$.

6. Forests.

I. When the Romans became acquainted with the interior of Germany, they found a large portion of it covered with primitive forests. These were either comprehended under one general name, as *Hercynia Silva*, *Hercynius Saltus*, *Hercynium Jugum*, or received special appellations, as *Bacēnis Silva*, *Gabrēta Silva*, &c.

II. Hercynia Silva.—This was the general name of the large mountain chain which separates the interior of Germany from the tracts adjacent to the Danube, commencing with the Schwartzwald, or Black Forest, running northward till it crosses the Main, then eastward, comprising what are now called the

Spessart Wald and Franken Wald, through Bohemia and the north of Hungary. The ancient writers, however, do not all agree in their description of it. Ptolemy assigns much narrower limits to the name than Cæsar does, and applies it to the ridge between the Gabretan Forest and the Sarmatian Mountains which unite the Carpathian and Sudetan Mountains. Cæsar's account was derived from report. At a later period, the Romans, in their wars with Maroboduus, whose possessions lay along the $B\bar{o}hmer$ Wald Mountains, became personally acquainted with it. Different names, as already remarked, were afterward given to different parts. Thus,

II. Bacēnis Silva was that part of the Hercynian Forest which lay between the Cherusci and Catti, extending from the northern bank of the Main, or the western part of the Thüringerwald, as far as the Fulda Wald.

III. Marciana Silva was the Schwartzwald or Black Forest. This name became known to the Romans in their war with the Alemanni. The Helvetji had dwelt here in early times, but were expelled by the wandering Suevi.

IV. Gabrēta Silva was a part of the eastern Thūringerwald, lying to the south of the Sudeti Montes.

V. Saltus Teutobergiensis, in the bishopric of Paderborn, between the Lippe and the Ems. Memorable as the scene of the overthrow of Varus.

VI. Casia Silva, now Häserwald, between the Lippe and the Yssel.

VII. Lucus Semnŏnum, now the Sonnewald and Finsterwald, between the Elster and the Spree. This was a sacred forest, in which human sacrifices were accustomed to be offered, and where general assemblies used to be held of delegates from all the Suevic tribes.

VIII. Lunæ Silva, on each side of the River Marus, now March. It answers now to Manhartsberg, a name which is the same as Mond-Wallberg, the word man signifying "moon" (mond) in early German.

7. CHIEF RIVERS.

1. Danubius (Δανούδιος), the Danube, called by the Germans the Donau. Strabo and Pliny make it rise in the chain of Mount Abnoba, a part of the Black Forest. According to modern accounts, it originates on the eastern declivity of the Black Forest, about twenty-four miles from the banks of the Rhine. It falls into the Black Sea, the ancient Pontus Euxinus, after a course of about one thousand seven hundred and seventy miles, and it receives sixty navigable rivers, the largest of which is the Œnus, now the Inn, and one hundred and twenty smaller streams. The Danube was known to the early Greek writers under the name of Ἰστρος (Istros), which the Romans changed to Ister, and which appears to have been the genuine name of this river after it had received the Savus, now the Save. The Romans, on the other hand, learned the name Danubius from the natives on the upper part of the stream, with whom they were brought into contact by commerce and by conquest. Herodotus, in his fourth book (chap. 48, &c.), has transmitted to us all that was known in his time of the Danube and its tributaries in the middle and lower part of its course.

II. Rhenus (' $P\bar{\eta}\nu\sigma\varsigma$), the Rhine, rising, according to Strabo and Ptolemy, in Mons Adūla, a name given to a collection of summits answering at the present day to a part of the Lepontine Alps. The sources of the Rhine are in this part of the Alps, a little to the east of Mount St. Gothard, in the country of the Grisons. Its whole course is about nine hundred miles, of which six hundred and thirty are navigable from Bâle, the ancient Basilia, to the sea. The Romans first became acquainted with the Rhine by the conquests of Cæsar in Gaul, who crossed it twice against the Germans. He knew, however, nothing of the

northern or southern part of the river except from report, and appears never to have gone himself farther north than the Scaldis, the modern Scheldt, though his cavalry, on one occasion, reached the country where the Rhine and the Mosa meet. The campaigns of Drusus and Tiberius in Rætia and the northwestern parts of Germany gave the Romans a more accurate knowledge of the course of this river. Ancient writers differ respecting the number of mouths by which the Rhine fell into the ocean. Cæsar says that there are several, but most other writers speak only of two or three. According to Tacitus, who makes the number to be two, the western was called Vahalis till its union with the Mosa, when it took the name of the latter river, while the eastern, which formed the boundary between Gaul and Germany, preserved the name of Rhenus. Pliny, Ptolemy, and other writers say that the Rhine fell into the sea by three mouths, of which the eastern, according to Pliny, was called Flevum, and the western, formed by the union with the Mosa, Helium; while the middle one, which was only a stream of moderate size, retained the name of Rhenus. The channel called Flevum is supposed to have been formed by the canal which Drusus dug to connect the Rhine with the Isala, and by means of which he and Germanicus sailed to the ocean. The Isala, increased by the waters of the Rhine, flowed northward into a great lake called Flevo, on issuing from which it became a river again, and fell into the ocean after forming an island of the same name. In course of time the sea made great inroads upon the land round the mouth of the River Isala, till at length it submerged that part of the country, and became united with the Lake Flevo, thus forming the modern Zuider Zee, or "Southern Sea."

At the present day the Rhine divides into two arms near the village of Pannerden, which is within the territories of Holland; of these arms the southern is called the Waal, the ancient Vahalis, while the northern preserves the name of Rhine. Nearly two thirds of the volume of water run into the Waal. The Waal runs westward, and the Rhine northwest. The Rhine divides again twelve miles lower down, above Arnheim, into the Yssel, the ancient Isala, which runs to the north, and the Rhine, which runs off to the west. The Yssel falls into the Zuider Zee. The Rhine, on the other hand, running westward, divides for the third time about thirty miles lower down, at Wyck, by Duurstede. southern arm is called the Leck, and the northern goes by the name of Kromme Rhyn, "Crooked Rhine." The Leck is the larger river. The Crooked Rhine runs northwest to Utrecht, the ancient Trajectus Rheni, where it divides for the fourth and last time. The arm which runs northward is called the Vecht, the ancient Vidrus, and falls into the Zuider Zee; the other, whose name is changed into that of Oulde Rhyn, "Old Rhine," continues westward through the marshes of Holland, where the waters are used for feeding numerous canals. It passes through Leyden, the ancient Lugdunum Batavorum, and formerly did not reach the sea, being prevented by some sandy dunes which line the shores of this part of Holland; but in 1807 a canal was made through them, and the river now discharges a small quantity of water into the sea at Katwyck, northwest of Leyden. The Leck, or middle branch of the Rhine, was originally also a canal, made by the Roman general Corbulo; and it existed as such to A.D. 829, when the bed was greatly enlarged by an inundation, and thus it became the principal river, while the true Rhine was reduced to insignificance. It runs from Wyck, by Duurstede, westward for about fifty miles, when it is joined from the south by a branch of the Maas or Meuse, the ancient Mosa, called the Merwe or Merwede. On approaching the sea, another arm of the Maas, called the Oulde Maas, "Old Maas," joins it, and from this point to its mouth the wide astuary of the river is called the Maas.

III. Unsingis, now the Unse, passing by the modern Gröningen, and falling into the German Ocean. At its mouth was Ptolemy's Μαναρμανὶς λιμήν, which still retains the name of Marna.

. IV. Amisia, now the Ems, rose in the Saltus Teutoburgiensis, and emptied into the German Ocean. Strabo calls it the 'A $\mu a\sigma ia$, and Ptolemy the 'A $\mu a\sigma ios$. Mela gives it the name of Amisius. On this river Drusus defeated the Bructeri in a naval encounter.

V. Visurgis, now the Weser. This river is formed by the junction of the Werra and the Fulda, and their united streams take the name of Weser, which is supposed to be only a corruption of the original name of the Werra (Wisaraha, Wesara, Wirraha). The Weser is known in Roman history by the expeditions of Drusus and Germanicus against the Cherusci and their confederates. Ptolemy calls it Οὐτσουργυς, and Strabo Βίσουργυς.

VI. Albis, now the Elbe, rising in the Riesengebirge chain, or Giant Mountains of Bohemia. This was the easternmost stream of Germany with which the Romans were acquainted, and they knew it, moreover, only in the northern part of its course. The first Roman commander who reached it in a military expedition was Drusus, B.C. 9. The only Roman, however, who crossed it with an army was L. Domitius Ahenobarbus, B.C. 3. The last Roman general in this quarter was Tiberius, A.D. 5. The name of this river is said to be derived from the old northern term elf or elfa, which in the early German became Alba or Elba, and means "a river."

VII. Viadrus, now the Oder. Ptolemy writes the name $O\dot{v}ta\delta o_{\mathcal{O}}$ (Viadus), but the more correct form, it is thought, would have been $O\dot{v}ta\delta o_{\mathcal{O}}$, Viadrus, as we have here given it. According to the same ancient writer, the river was called $O\dot{v}ta\delta o_{\mathcal{O}}$ only at its mouth, and received, in the interior of the country, the appellation of $Ia\delta o va$. Reichard makes the Viadus coincide with the modern Wipper, and the Iadua with the Thue. An argument in favor of identifying the Viadrus with the Oder, and also tending to confirm the orthography which we have adopted, may be obtained from the Old Wendo-Slavonic name of the Oder, Wiadro.

VIII. Vistula, now called by the Germans the Weichsel, by the Poles the Wisla, by English writers the Vistula. It rises at the foot of the Carpathian Mountains. Ptolemy calls it Οὐῦστούλας. Ammianus Marcellinus styles it the Bisla, which, giving the initial letter a vowel sound, will agree with the Polish name. On the right bank of the Vistula the amber region began, along the shore of the Mare Suevicum or Baltic Sea.

8. TRIBUTARY STREAMS.

(A.) Tributaries to the Danube, on its left bank, in Germania Magna.

1. The Alemannus or Alemo, now the Altmühl. The course of this river shows frequent traces of Roman military lines, which sometimes intersect its bed. In the Middle Ages it was called the Almona. Charlemagne endeavored to effect a continuous navigation between the Rhine and Danube by uniting the waters of the Alemannus with those of the Radantia, now the Rednitz. 2. The Nablis, called, also, the Bac; now, according to Reichard, the Naabe. 3. The Reganum, now the Regen. 4. The Cusus, now the Waag. 5. The Marus, called, also, the Morus, now the March. This stream became well known to the Romans in their war with Maroboduus, king of the Marcomanni. 6. The Granua, now the Gran, in the land of the Quadi.

(B.) Tributaries to the Rhine, on its right bank, in Germania Magna.

1. The Nicer or Niger, now the Neckar. 2. The Manus or Manus, now the Main. 3. The Logana or Lohana, now the Lahn. 4. The Sigum, called, also, Sega or Segaha, now the Sieg. This river, like the one immediately preceding, is only mentioned in the Middle Ages. 5. The Luppia, now the Lippe; called by Ptolemy the $\Lambda ouniag$. 6. The Elison (Elison Elison), now the Alme. On this river stood the Roman castellum called Aliso, where the modern Elsen is now situated, and which was the key to the passes of the Saltus Teutoburgiensis. 7. Sala Bructerorum, called, also, the Isala, now the Yssel, of which mention has already been made in the account give not the Rhine.

9. LAKES.

I. Estia Lacus, mentioned by Mela, and, according to the best authorities, answering now to the Dammersec in the kingdom of Hanover.

II. Flevo Lacus, in the country of the Frisii, from the union of which with the waters of the ocean, by an irruption of the latter, arose the present Zuider Zee. This has already been alluded to in the account of the Rhine.

III. Lacus Brigantinus, now the Lake of Constance; called, also, the Bodensee, from the ancient castle of Bodmann, and likewise the Lake of Costnitz. Its ancient name Brigantinus is given to it from the Brigantii, who dwelt on its shores. Mela calls it Lacus Venetus, or rather gives this name to that part of the lake from Constanz to Radolfzell, now called the Unterzellersee, or Lower Lake. Tiberius built a fleet on this lake in order to attack the Vindelici. Pliny expressly assigns it to Rætia; others reckon it part of Vindelicia. As the Rhine passes through it, we have preferred making mention of it under the head of Germany.

10. SOIL AND CLIMATE.

I. The Roman writers draw very unfavorable pictures generally of the soil and climate of ancient Germany. Mela, for example, describes the surface of the country as cut up by a multitude of rivers, made rugged by numerous mountain chains, and in a great measure impracticable for travellers by reason of the forests and marshes that covered it. Tacitus also speaks of it as rough with forests or deformed by fens. He admits, indeed, that it was productive for grain, and kindly to fruit-trees, and that it also abounded in cattle; but he makes these last to have been, for the most part, diminutive in size.

II. Tacitus, however, does not appear to have known much of the interior of Germany, although it is true that numerous forests were scattered over the country. The marshes, moreover, of which he speaks, refer principally to the country of East Friesland, the coast of the German Ocean, at the mouth of the Ems and Weser, and to some parts of Westphalia and Lower Saxony. It would seem, from other accounts, that Germany was by no means an unproductive country. Cæsar, for example, speaks of the fertility of the country around the Hercynian Forest; Commodus laid the Marcomanni under a tribute of corn; the cultivation of oats is mentioned by Pliny, and even Tacitus himself speaks elsewhere of barley, out of which a fermented liquor was made.

III. As regards the animals of the country, especially the cattle, Tacitus wishes to convey the idea that they are stunted by the severity of the climate. This, however, is an error. Some of the quadrupeds of ancient Germany—the urus

(auerochs), for example—were remarkable for their size. The smallness of the cattle must have been owing rather to want of care in feeding them, in protecting them from the ordinary inclemencies of winter, and in improving the breed by mixtures.

11. CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.

I. Our principal information on this subject is derived from Tacitus, who wrote a separate treatise on the manners and customs of the German tribes. Occasional notices and scattered hints are also found in the works of other ancient authors, particularly in the Gallic Commentaries of Cæsar.

II. The Germans are described as tall and robust of frame, with light blue eyes and deep yellow hair; as inured to cold and hunger, but not to heat and thirst; as warlike, yet friendly and hospitable, even to utter strangers; as scorning every restraint, considering independence as the most valuable of possessions, and therefore ready to give up life rather than freedom.

III. Unacquainted with the arts of civilized life, the German. when not engaged in warfare, lived amid his forests and pastures, supported by the chase, and the produce of his flocks and herds, or by the culture of the ground, though this last occupied comparatively little of his attention. The warrior, however, during these same seasons of peace, led a life of total inaction, given up to sleep, to the pleasures of the table, and to gaming. A beverage prepared with little art from barley or wheat indemnified them for the absence of the juice of the grape, while they carried their love of gaming to such an extent as even to stake on the final throw, when every thing else was lost, their personal freedom itself.

IV. The form of government in most of the German states was the democratic. The public assemblies, consisting of all able to bear arms and belonging to the same tribe, were summoned either at fixed periods or on sudden emergencies. The free vote of the members of these councils decided on public offences, the election of magistrates, on war or peace; for, though the leaders were allowed to discuss all subjects previously, yet the right of deciding was vested solely in the people at large. In some of the communities, particularly those dwelling more to the north, a monarchical form of government prevailed; but even here checks were imposed upon the power of the monarch, and democratic features were visible.

V. In times of danger or war a leader was chosen, and the most valiant was selected for this purpose; but even then they led their countrymen more by their example than by any authority. As soon as the danger or war was over, his authority ceased. In times of peace, no other superiors were known than the chieftains, who were chosen in the assemblies to distribute justice, or to compose differences in their respective districts. Each of these chieftains was attended by one hundred companions, who acted both as a council of advice and a means of enforcing authority.

VI. To leaders of approved valor the noblest youths voluntarily devoted themselves, and as the former vied with each other in assembling around them the bravest companions, so the latter contended by their zeal and prowess for the favor of their leaders. It was the duty of the leader to be foremost in the hour of danger, and the duty of each companion not to be inferior in prowess and daring to his chief. To survive the fall of their leader was an indelible disgrace to the companions, for it was their most sacred duty to defend his person, and to heighten his glory by their own achievements. The leader fought for victory, his companions for their leader.

VII. The primitive nations of Germany attached something of a sacred and

prescient character to the female sex. Hence the importance which they attached to their counsels and responses, and hence, too, the reverence with which they regarded certain females of their nation, who were supposed to be gifted with prophetic powers. Polygamy was only permitted to the chieftains as a means of extending their family connections and influence. Adultery was considered an inexpiable crime, and was, therefore, of very rare occurrence. The punishment of the offence, when committed, was given over into the hands of the husband.

VIII. The religious notions of the race were necessarily rude and imperfect, but still bore manifest traces of an Oriental origin. Their chief deity was Odin, the Budha of the East, but whom the Romans assimilated to their own Mercury, and on stated occasions they sought to propitiate him even by human sacrifices. The god of battles, Thor, the Roman Mars, was also, as might be expected, an object of peculiar adoration. Some of the Suevic tribes also paid adoration to the moon, or, as Tacitus miscalls it, the goddess Isis. Their temples were groves and forests, rendered sacred by the veneration of many generations, and in the dark recesses of these were preserved their sacred standards. Among the nations bordering on the Baltic Sea, the goddess Hertha (Earth) was particularly worshipped. Her temple was a sacred grove in the Isle of Rugen, and her rites strongly remind us of those of Cybele among the Romans, Phrygians, and other nations of the ancient world, as well as those of Baghawadi among the Brahmins of India.

12. GERMAN TRIBES MORE IN DETAIL.

1. TRIBES ON THE SEA-COAST.

(A.) Tribe between the Rhine and Ems.

FRISH.—The Frisii were divided into the Frisii Majores and Frisii Minores. The Frisii Minores inhabited the tract north of the Insula Batavorum, comprising Oberyssel, Gelders, Utrecht, and the greater part of the province of Holland. The Frisii Majores dwelt between the Yssel, the Ems, and the country of the Bructeri, in West Friesland and Gröningen. The Frisiābones, mentioned by Pliny, probably formed part of the same race, and seem to have dwelt in the islands of the Zuider Zee. From their first acquaintance with the Romans, the Frisii long continued their most zealous friends in this part: they rendered Drusus the most active service, and not only supported Germanicus themselves by their advice and immediate aid, but brought over the Cauci also. The cause of this friendship is probably to be found in the hostility which existed between them and the Cherusci, against whom all these enterprises of the Romans were directed. It was interrupted, however, in consequence of the Romans building forts in their territory, and attempting to levy tribute. They rose upon the Romans, massacred the soldiers who were among them, and destroyed most of their strongholds. Corbulo, the Roman general, proceeded against them, but the jealousy of Claudius Cæsar stopped his conquests, and he was obliged to withdraw to the left bank of the Rhine. From this time forward the Romans no more entered their country. In the fourth and fifth centuries we hear of them as members of the Saxon league; and by this time they had greatly extended their possessions. On the east they reached to the Weser, and along the coast they held some posts as far as the Elbe; on the west their name appears more than once in the Batavian Islands, on the Meuse and Scheldt, and on the whole coast of Flanders. They accompanied the Saxons in their invasion and conquest of Britain. Their descendants, who still retain their name of Frisians, are settled among the small islands on the western coast of the Duchy of Schleswig.

The following geographical positions may be mentioned among the Frisii:

1. Burchāna, called by Strabo Bovoxavíç, an island answering to the modern Borkum. Pliny calls it Fabaria, from a species of wild bean growing there.

2. Austeravia, now the island of Ameland. It was also called Glessaria, from the amber found here by the Roman soldiers.

3. Corbulonis Monumentum. The fortress erected by Corbulo to keep the Frisii under proper restraint. It gave rise subsequently to the modern city of Gröningen.

4. Cruptoricis Villa, now Hem Ryk, in Oysterlande. It was here that four hundred Roman soldiers slew themselves to prevent their falling into the hands of the Frisii.

(B.) Tribe between the Ems and the Elbe.

CAUCI.—This tribe dwelt along the ocean, from the Amisia, now Ems, to the Albis, now Elbe, and reached southward somewhat below what is now Ostfriesland, Oldenberg, and Bremen, although along the Weser these boundaries often changed. Pliny and Ptolemy divide them into the Greater and the Less, and though Tacitus does not make this distinction in his "Germany," he alludes to it in his Annals. According to Ptolemy, the Cauci Majores dwelt between the Visurgis and Albis, and the Cauci Minorcs between the Amisia and Visurgis. Tacitus says that their country was extensive and thickly settled, and that they were a people distinguished among the Germans for their love of justice and peace; powerful and yet unambitious, they did not provoke war, and yet were always ready to resist aggression. They were at one time friends to Rome, and furnished auxiliaries to Germanicus in the war against the Cherusci. here again the Romans roused the enmity of their allies by pursuing the same policy as in the case of the Frisii. Under Gannascus they crossed the Rhine, and made incursions into the Roman province of Germania Inferior, but were repulsed by Corbulo, and Gannascus was slain. They afterward joined in the revolt of the Batavian chief Civilis. Ptolemy mentions, as their towns, 1. Phabirānum, now Brema or Varel. 2. Leuphāna, now Lüneberg, according to some. 3. Tuliphurdum, now Verden or Döhlbergen. 4. Siatutanda, now Utendc. 5. Teuderium, now Detern. Their name is still preserved in that of their harbor, Cuxhaven.

(C.) Tribes immediately East of the Elbe.

I. Angli.-We find the earliest record of this tribe in Tacitus. But this author only mentions their name, states a few particulars relative to their religion, and intimates that they were a branch of the Spevi. He appears to have known very little about them. They are not mentioned in the expeditions of Drusus and Tiberius, and therefore probably at that time were on the east of the Elbe. Ptolemy places them on the west, in what is now Magdeburg. D'Anville has in his map assigned them the same district which they occupied in the fifth century, before their emigration to England, and parts of which the modern Angles still occupy. He allots to them the greatest portion of modern Schleswig and some part of Holstein, making the German Ocean their western boundary, the Saxons their nearest neighbors on the south, the Varini on the southeast, and the Jutes on the north. About the middle of the fifth century (449), a large body of Saxons and Angles, led by Hengist and Horsa, sailed over to England, and established permanent settlements in the island. The Angles, however, seem to have prevailed in numbers or influence, for it was they that gave the name to their new country, Angel-land, Anglia, though it was sometimes called Saxonia Transmarina. The name Anglo-Saxons, which comprises both Angles and Saxons, was invented by later historians for the sake of convenience.

. II. SANONES .- The earliest writers who mention the Saxons describe them as neighbors of the Danes, south of the Cimbric Chersonese. Ptolemy also speaks of the islands of the Saxons, which were probably the modern islands of Eiderstedt, Nordstrand, Wicking Harde, and Boking Harde. Orosius says that they inhabited a marshy country, which was almost inaccessible to strangers. Toward the southwest they seem not at first to have extended beyond the Elbe. The similarity of their language to that of the Persians and ancient Indians affords reason for believing that the Saxons were of Eastern origin, and hence some have derived their name from that of the Saeæ on the Indus. Others, however, trace it to the word "sassen," that is, "settled," in contradistinction from those German tribes who led a sort of nomadic life. When, during the migration of the barbarians, the neighboring tribes changed their countries and migrated toward the south, the Saxons likewise began to extend in the same direction, and at last we find them occupying the country between the Elbe, the Rhine, the Lippe, and the German Ocean. This extensive tract of land is called by Anglo-Saxon writers "Old Saxony," to distinguish it from "New Saxony" or England. In the third century the Saxons often landed on the coasts of England and France, and ravaged the maritime districts, until, about the middle of the fifth century, a portion of them joined the Angli, and made a permanent settlement in England. Those Saxons who remained in Germany moved gradually toward the interior of Germany, and gradually abandoned their piratical and plundering mode of life, to become an agricultural people.

III. CIMBRI.—A nation commonly, but erroneously, placed on the Cimbric Chersonese, or modern Jutland. The accounts of the ancients respecting their seats abound in uncertainties and contradictions. The writers who place them on the Cimbric Chersonese are Pliny, Taeitus, and Ptolemy. But, upon examination, it does not appear that they ever inhabited these parts. The Greeks first became acquainted with them under the name of Cimmerii, on the northern coast of the Euxine. They were driven from this quarter, and disappeared from the knowledge of the Greeks, who fabled that they dwelt on the shores of the Northern Ocean, in a land shrouded by perpetual night. Pytheas, who eircumnavigated the greater part of the northwest of Europe, saw a large peninsula, where the long nights and the intense cold in winter seemed to agree with the poetical descriptions of the land of the Cimmerii, and so assigned this country as their abode. In this he was followed by most of the geographers. No mention is made of the Cimbri in the expeditions of Drusus and Germanicus; and, though the fleet of the latter discovered the Cimbric Chersonese of Pytheas, they found no Cimbrians dwelling in it, nor did it bear a name derived from that people. Ptolemy places them at the extremity of it, merely to fill up a gap, as he has no other tribe to fix in this locality. Their real country lay probably on the northeast side of Germany. It was on this side that they invaded Germany, and were opposed by the Boii, at that time the inhabitants of Bohemia. Together with the Teutones they entered Gaul, where they were joined by the Ambrones. With their combined forces they then invaded Spain, but were repulsed by the Celtiberi. The Teutones and Ambrones then proceeded through Gallia Narbonensis, with the view of making an irruption into Italy, but were defeated by Marius at Aquæ Sextiæ, now Aix. The Cimbri, on the other hand, having marched into Helvetia, were there joined by the Tigurini, and having made an irruption into Italy, drove back Catulus, but were at last routed by the combined forces of Marins and that commander, B.C. 101. From this time little or no mention is made of the Cimbri in history, but tradition says that the remnant of them settled in the central valleys of Helvetia, and the inhabitants

of the Waldstätten and of the Bernese Oberland are supposed to be their descendants. The Cimbri appear to have been a Celtic, not a German race. Their name may still be traced in Cymry, the national appellation of the Welsh.

IV. Teutones or Teutoni, a name given to a tribe said to dwell on the east of the Albis; but more probably we have here merely a general appellation for the whole German race. The word Teuton or Teutones contains evidently the same root with the modern national term Deutsche or Teutsche.

2. Tribes on the right bank of the Rhine.

(A.) Tribes between the Frisii and the River Luppia, and bounded on the East by the Visurgis.

I. Bructeri.—This tribe, in all their wars with the Romans, never changed their seats. Toward the west they reached to the Vecht; toward the south to the Luppia or Lippe; toward the east almost to the Weser; and toward the north they bordered upon the Frisii and Cauci. They were divided into the Bructeri Majores, who dwelt on the east of the Ems, and the Bructeri Minores, who dwelt on the west of that stream. Tacitus says that they were extirpated by the Chamavi and Angrivarii; but this is an error, since we find them engaged in hostilities with the Roman general Spurinna in the reign of Trajan; and at a still later period they appear as a powerful people among the members of the Frank league. Their principal towns were, 1. Mediolanium, now Meteln. 2. Stereontium, now Steinfurt.

II. TUBANTES.—Confederates of the Cherusci, and settled at first between the *Rhine* and the *Yssel*. They retired subsequently from these territories to the southern side of the Lippe, and, finally, after the overthrow of the Marsi by the Roman arms, established themselves in the territory of this last-mentioned tribe.

III. CHAMAVI.—This tribe originally occupied the tract which extended northward to the *Vecht*, eastward to the *Ems*, southward to the *Lippe*, and westward to the eastern mouth of the Rhine. At a later period they lived between the *Weser* and the *Hartz Mountains*. In the third century they are again found on the Rhine as members of the Frank league, and in the next century they spread themselves along the *Waal*. Tacitus has most probably committed a mistake in placing them in the country of the Bructeri.

IV. Marsi.—This tribe, according to the most correct opinion, had their settlements in the neighborhood of the *Logana*, now the *Lahn*.

V. Dulgibīni.—Ptolemy places this tribe on the eastern bank of the Weser, but Tacitus assigns them a position in the rear of the Chamavi and Angrivarii, in what was once the territory of the Bructeri. They belonged to the race of the Cherusci, and were probably driven eastward by the same irruption of the Cauci as that which expelled the Angrivarii.

VI. USIPH OF USIPETES.—This tribe is generally named in connection with the Tencteri. They frequently changed their settlements. When driven from their original seats by the Catti, they wandered for three years in Germany, and having at length come to the Rhine, they crossed the river and seized upon the lands of the Menapii, Eburones, and Condrusi, between the Rhine and Moselle. They were defeated by Cæsar, and many perished in attempting to recross the Rhine. The remnant of the nation, after this, took refuge with the Sigambri. In the time of Claudius and Nero, they are found dwelling between the Sieg and the Lahn, and they were still living here in the time of Tacitus. In Ptolemy's time they occupied the northern part of the Black Forest. They became eventually mixed up with the Alemanni.

(B.) Tribes between the Luppia and Manus.

I. Sigamber of Sigamber, the most powerful tribe of the Istævones. Their original seats were on the River Sieg or Sig, and extended from this river to the Lippe. The Romans finally conquered them under the leading of Drusus. Tiberius subsequently transferred a large part of them to the left or southern bank of the Rhine, where they appear under the name of Gugerni. At a subsequent period they became incorporated into the league of the Franks.

II. Tencter.—These have already been alluded to in the account given of the Usipii. They lived south of the Lippe, in the region opposite Cologne and Bonn. At the time of the expeditions of Drusus and Tiberius they had removed eastward; but they returned after the overthrow of Varus, and in the age of Tacitus their possessions extended northward to the Lippe, where they bordered

upon the Bructeri, and southward to the Sieg.

III. Mattice.—Probably a branch of the Catti, dwelling on the right bank of the Rhine, in Wetterau and Hesse Darmstadt, the tract possessed by the Ubii before they crossed the Rhine. In the war of the Batavi, they, together with the Usipii and Catti, besieged Magontiacum, now Mayence. After their territories were occupied by the Alemanni, their name was almost extinguished. Their capital was Mattium, the site of which is most probably to be fixed at Maden. Another of their towns was Aquæ Mattiacæ, now Wisbaden.

(C.) Tribe south of the Manus.

ALEMANNI.—A powerful German people, the limits of whose settlements at first were the *Rhine*, the *Danube*, and the *Main*. In subsequent ages their territory extended toward the Alps and the Jura Mountains. The first notice of them in history occurs in A.D. 214, when a large number of them were treacherously massacred by Caracalla. From that period they were engaged in almost constant hostility with the Romans, and made frequent incursions into Gaul, down to the reign of Constantine the Great, when they were defeated in a bloody battle at *Langres*. After this they remained until A.D. 337, when they again invaded Gaul, during the reign of the sons of Constantine. Julian, however, in 356–361, not only drove them out of this country, but even made several expeditions into their German domains. We find them, however, even after this, frequently coming into collision with the Roman arms. Their strength was finally broken in the bloody battle gained by the Frankish king *Chlodwig*, at *Tolbiacum*, now *Zulpich*, in A.D. 496.

3. TRIBES ON THE LEFT BANK OF THE DANUBE.

Tribes between the Danube and the Erzgebirge and Riesengebirge.

I. Hermunduri.—This tribe occupied what is now Saxony and Anhalt, between the Saale and the Elbe. In the fifth century they appear in this same quarter under the name of Thuringi. In the name Hermunduri, Hermun is probably not an essential part, but merely marks that they belonged to the Herminones. Duri seems to have been their real name, and this root appears, with a German ending, in Thuringi. Among their towns, as enumerated by Ptolemy, we may mention, 1. Segodunum, now Wurceburg; 2. Bergium, now Bamberg; 3. Menosgāda, now Baruth.

II. NARISCI.—This tribe dwelt at the foot of the Fichtelgebirge. Ptolemy calls them Varisti (Οὐαριστοί), and Dio Cassius, Narisca (Ναρισκαί).

III. Quid.—This powerful tribe always appear in the closest connection with the Marcomanni. The Romans first became acquainted with them after the conquest of Pannonia. Their most ancient settlements on the Danube reached eastward to the *Tibiscus*, now the *Theis*, where they bordered on the Getæ. They afterward withdrew westward. The Quadi carried on wars with M. Aurelius, Commodus, Caracalla, Gallienus, Aurelian, Constantine, Julian, and Valentinian I., &c., until the fifth century, when they appear to have coalesced with other nations.

IV. Marcomanni.—We first hear of this tribe in the army of Ariovistus. At a subsequent period we find them dwelling between the Danube and the *Drave*, in *Austria* and *Hungary*, till the Romans conquered Pannonia and the Noric Alps, when they withdrew to the opposite side of the river, into the country occupied by the Boii, whom they expelled. This they did under the gaidance of Maroboduus, who had been educated at Rome, and who raised his people to a high pitch of prosperity. In the reign of Domitian, hostilities broke out bestween the Marcomanni and the Romans, and continued almost uninterruptedly till the fall of the Roman empire. After the death of Attila, in whose army they served, the Marcomanni are no longer heard of.

V. Boil.—This tribe may be here mentioned, because originally settled within the limits which we are considering. The settlements of this once powerful tribe are found in Gaul, and along both sides of the Danube from its source eastward, probably as far as the mouth of the Enns; toward the south they stretched to the mountains which separate Tyrol from Bavaria. The eastern part of Suabia, with the whole of Bavaria and Bohemia, which took their names from them (Bavaria having been originally Boiaria), belonged to them. They also occupied part of Moravia. From Bohemia they were expelled by the Marcomanni, and settled in Noricum and Bavaria, where Boiodurum, now Innstadt, took its name from them. At some period or other, but when is uncertain, they crossed the Alps, and established themselves in Italy, between the Tarus, the Silarus, and the Apennines. They were subdued by the Romans under Scipio Nasica, and afterward removed to the banks of the Drave. After this they were greatly weakened in wars with the Getæ, and an extensive tract in this part was called Deserta Boiorum. Some of the Boii accompanied Brennus in his invasion of Greece and Asia Minor, and settled in Galatia. Others joined the Helvetii when they migrated into Gaul, and were allowed by Cæsar to settle among the Ædui. Bohemia takes its name from Boiemum or Boihemum, which means, probably, "the home (heim, heimath) of the Boii."

4. TRIBES IN THE CENTRAL PARTS.

I. Survi.—A powerful German tribe, who, according to Tacitus, possessed all the land from the banks of the Danube northward to the Baltic Sea, between the Elbe and the Vistula. Cæsar gives their name to the Catti. After the time of Tacitus the name appears to have been lost. The tribes included under the general name of Suevi were the Semnones, Langobardi, Aviones, Varini, Eudoses, Suardones, and Nuithones. Of these, the only ones deserving of a particular mention are the Semnones and Langobardi.

II. Semnones.—This tribe lived between the Elbe and the Oder, inhabiting the tract which comprises what is now Mecklenburg and Brandenburg, with part of Saxony, Bohemia, Lusatia, Silesia, and Poland. The Romans first came into contact with them in the expeditions of Tiberius, and in the wars against Arminius (to whom, together with the Langobardi, they went over from Maroboduus), and then again in the time of Domitian, when a king of theirs, whom

they had driven out, came to Rome. Mannert contends that Semnones was not the name of any particular tribe, but a common one, like that of Suevi, and

that it was applied to the northern branches of the latter people.

III. Langobard.—This tribe frequently changed their settlements. At first they dwelt in the neighborhood of the Lower Elbe, in the tract called Bardengau, between Magdeburg, Lüncberg, and Hamburg, where the town of Bardwick stands. Here they were subdued by Tiberius, who moved them beyond the Elbe. They then advanced more into the interior of the country, to the neighborhood of the Semnones, and, together with these, revolted from Maroboduus, under whose dominion they then were, to Arminius. Afterward, on the decline of the power of the Cherusci, they extended themselves to the Rhine; and here they are placed by Ptolemy, between the Bructeri and Tencteri. They did not, however, remain here long; the Saxon league drove them back to the Elbe. In the fifth century they established themselves in Pannonia. Then, at the invitation of Narses, and led by Alboinus across the Alps (A.D. 568), they settled in Lombardy, which took its name from them

IV. Angrīvārii.—This tribe dwelt on the east of the Weser, between the Cauci and Cherusei, and extended over a part of Lüneberg and Calenberg to the Steinhuder See, which formed the boundary between them and the Cherusei, and on both sides of the River Aller. Traces of their name are still found near

the Elbe in Angern, Engern, Engershausen, &c.

V. Cherusci.—The possessions of this tribe lay in the Hartz Mountains, and on both sides of them, but chiefly on the south, where the northwest part of the Thüringer Wald separated them from the Catti. They were at first in alliance with Rome, and Arminius commanded a squadron of German cavalry in the Roman army, and so far distinguished himself that he was made a Roman knight. Afterward, however, roused by this leader, the Cherusci joined the Catti and others in the well-known attack upon Varus. They were subsequently defeated by Germanicus. The Cheruscan league included the Dulgibīni, Ansibārii, Chasuāri, Chamāvi, Tubantes, Marsi, &c. These and other small tribes are frequently called Cherusci. With Arminius fell the power of the Cherusci; their league was speedily dissolved, and a considerable portion of their territory was wrested from them by the Langobardi, and they were driven from the west of the Thūringer Wald by the Catti.

VI. Chasuāri.—This tribe belonged to the nation of the Cherusci. Ptolemy places their settlements on the western side of the Weser, in what is now Osnaburg and Paderborn. They subsequently appear among the Franks, on the

western part of the Lower Rhine, in the dukedom of Gueldres.

VII. Cattl.—This tribe were separated from the Cherusei by the Forest of Bacenis, or the western part of the Thuringer Wald. Their territory comprehended that of the modern Hessians, Fulda, the earldoms of Hanau and Isenberg, so much of Franconia as lies north of the Main to the mouth of the Saale, part of Nassau, and the eastern portion of the duchy of Westphalia. Their name, allowing for the difference of sound in Latin and German, is the same as that of the Hessians. The Catti were defeated by Drusus, but some time afterward they took part with the Cherusei in the slaughter of Varus and his legions. In the reign of Tiberius, Germanicus overran their country; but they continued in arms against the Romans for many years after, and aided the revolt of the Batavi in the reign of Vitellius. They were also engaged in war with the Hermunduri, by whom they were nearly extirpated.

VIII. Gothin.—This tribe are supposed by some to have lived in *Cracow*, or on the banks of the *Marus*, now the *March*. Others place them on the south

of the Danube, where there are several iron mines, in Styria. Tacitus speaks of the iron mines in their country.

IX. Gotones.—The name Gotones is synonymous with that of Γύθωνες as given by Ptolemy, or Goths. They were often erroneously confounded with the Getæ and Scythians. Pytheas is the first who mentions them, when they lived on the right bank of the Vistula, and on the coast of the Baltic, on the borders of Silesia and Poland, and afterward a part of them in Scandinavia, where their name appears in Gothland, Gothenburg, Codanus Sinus, and Gedanum. They first appear under the name of Goths in the time of Caracalla. Somewhere about the middle of the second century they seem to have wandered from the Vistula to the neighborhood of the Dnieper and Dniester, and incessantly harassed the province of Dacia. In the time of Gallienus they devastated Thrace and Macedonia, and a portion of them penetrated into Asia Minor, and burned the temple of Diana at Ephesus. About this period they spread eastward along the northern coast of the Euxine. In the year 269 they were defeated by Claudius in Mesia. Shortly afterward Aurelian abandoned Dacia to them, and they were now divided into Ostro-Goths, or Eastern Goths, inhabiting the shores of the Euxine, and Visi-Goths, or Western Goths, who occupied Dacia. The Borysthenes formed the boundary of the two divisions. About the year 375, the Huns, under Attila, drove the Ostrogoths upon their western neighbors, who retired before them, and were allowed by the Emperor Valens to settle in Mæsia. Here disputes arose between them and the Romans, and Valens was killed in attempting to oppose them. In the reign of Honorius, Alaric, at the head of the Visigoths, invaded Italy, but was defeated by Stilicho. He soon returned, however, and made himself master of Rome. His successor, Ataulph, made peace with the Romans, and withdrew to the south of Gaul, from which country the Visigoths afterward withdrew to Spain, where they maintained their ground until they were conquered by the Moors. After the death of Attila the Ostrogoths emancipated themselves from the dominion of the Huns, and, under Theodoric, defeated Odoacer and subdued Italy, A.D. 489. But their dominion here was overthrown by Narses, the general of Justinian, in 554, and the remnant of their race became amalgamated with the other inhabitants of Italy.

X. Burgundiones.—Pliny numbers this race among the branches of the great stock of the Vindili or Vandals; Ptolemy places these Vindili upon the lower Vistula. They first came into contact with the Romans during the reign of Probus. They invaded Gaul at different periods with various success: but in the reign of Honorius that emperor ceded to them part of Gaul, near the banks of the Rhine, and from this cession arose the kingdom of Burgundy.

XI. Vandalli or Vindili.—A German tribe, who lived at first on the shores of the Baltic, between the Albis and Vistula, in what is now *Pomerania* and part of *Poland*; but, being forced to evacuate their possessions in their wars with Aurelian and Probus, they first settled in Dacia and Sarmatia, then in Pannonia and Gallia, and in the year 406, together with the Alani, they migrated to Spain. Being afterward overpowered by the Goths, they took refuge in Africa, and were there subdued by Justinian in the year 534.

DECUMĀTES AGRI.

Before leaving the subject of Germany, we may allude briefly to the *Decu-*mates Agri. This name was applied by the Romans to certain lands conquered
by them, and in which, for the sake of security, that no hostile tribe might dwell
close to their borders, they allowed Gauls or Roman soldiers to settle, who were
charged with the payment of a tithe (decima) to the Romans. The situation of

these lands is variously laid down. Some authors place them on the banks of the Neckar, others between the Lahn and Main, and on the banks of the Danube, opposite the province of Rætia, or within the Roman vallum, reaching from Magontiacum to the Danube, near the source of which lay the territories of the Marcomanni, which the Romans took possession of after Maroboduus removed to Bohemia. Drusus Germanicus, having built a fort on Mount Taunus, seems to have laid the first foundation of the lines, inclosing the Decumates Agri, which was gradually advanced, especially by Trajan and Hadrian, and fortified. Though the occupation of these lands depended on the will of the emperor, towns gradually sprang up in them. There are still remains of a Roman wall running from Ingolstadt, on the Danube, to the River Main. Toward the end of the third century, these lands were wrested from the Romans by the Alemanni, whom Julian and Valentinian in vain endeavored to expel.

II. SCANDINAVIA.

I. The ancient Scandinavia answered to the modern Sweden and Norway. The ancients, however, had a very imperfect knowledge of what they called Scandinavia, believing it to be either one large island of unascertained dimensions, or a collection of several islands.

II. According to Pliny, the only part of Scandinavia known in his time was occupied by the *Hilleviōnes*, a numerous nation, who inhabited five hundred pagi or districts. Tacitus, in a later age, when enumerating the tribes of Germany, speaks of the *Suiōnes* and *Suŏnes* as living in the remote north. By the Suiones are probably meant the inhabitants of Sweden, and by the Sitones those of Norway.

ands, there are found in Pliny the names of Bergi and Nerigos, as indicating two of these islands. It is thought by the best geographers that the former of these appellations points to Bergen, one of the principal towns in Norway, and that the latter, which was given to what the ancients deemed the largest island, refers to the country of Norway itself, called in Swedish Norrige, and in Danish Norge. The Sevo Mons of Pliny has already been alluded to (page 11).

IV. The *Thile* described by Procopius is supposed to have been different from the island of that name already referred to by us (page 212), and the modern canton of *Tele-mark* or *Tyle-mark* retains, as is thought, evident traces of the ancient appellation.

V. In connection with Scandinavia may be mentioned the country of Finningia, or the modern Finnland. Pliny makes it an island. The first mention of its inhabitants under the denomination of Finns (Fenni) occurs in Tacitus, who describes them as a savage race, without arms, horses, or iron; their arrows were pointed with bone, and their principal occupation was hunting. The Finns at the present day call themselves, not Finns, but Suomilins, which means a dwellers among swamps."

VI. The Scrito-Finni mentioned by Procopius were so called, according to Paulus Diaconus, from the lightness and swiftness of their course over the snows and ice, which they pursued on a species of snow-shoes or skates.

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III. IAZYGES METANASTÆ.

I. The laviges were a people of Sarmatian origin, and their native seats were on the northern shores of the Euxine and Palus Maotis. Being driven from these, about A.D. 51, by the Rhoxolani, as it is thought, they settled in the country between the Danube and the Tibiscus, now the Theiss, after driving out the Daci, and carried on for a short time hostilities with the Romans. They are frequently mentioned by subsequent writers as dangerous neighbors to the provinces of Pannonia and Mesia.

II. Ptolemy calls them *Mctanasta* (Μετανάσται), to indicate their having **left** their original seats, and being "wanderers" from home.

IV. DACIA.

1. EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.

1. Dacia was the ancient name of a country bounded on the north by European Sarmatia, on the south by the Danube, on the east by the Euxine, and on the west by the Tibiscus, now the Theiss.

II. It comprehended, therefore, the modern Transylvania, Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia.

2. NAME AND HISTORY.

I. Dacia derived its name from the Daci, whose earlier appellation, according to Strabo, was Dai ($\Delta \tilde{a}oi$). The country, however, was occupied, in fact, by two communities, the Daci and Geta; but as they both spoke the same language, they must be regarded, of course, as portions of the same race. The Daci occupied the part toward Germany and the sources of the Danube, the Getæ the part toward the east and the Euxine. The Getæ were better known to the Greeks in consequence of their frequent migrations to the banks of the Danube. The Latin name Daci, however, included the Getæ.

II. The first expedition of the Emperor Trajan was against the Daci, headed by their king Decebalus, and the war, which lasted nearly five years, ended in their submission to the Roman power. In A.D. 250, Dacia was overrun and conquered by the Goths, to whom it was subsequently resigned by the Emperor Aurelian.

III. While prosecuting the conquest of Dacia, Trajan constructed, with the aid of the architect Apollodorus, his celebrated bridge over the Danube, the largest work of this kind mentioned by the ancients. According to Dio Cassius, it consisted of twenty piers, one hundred and fifty feet high, sixty wide, and one hundred and seventy apart; the piers were united by wooden arches. The whole length of it has been calculated at four thousand seven hundred and seventy Roman feet. If the statement of Dio Cassius be true, this bridge seems not only to have served for the passage of the river, but the immense height of the pillars, of which scarcely more than seventy feet can have been under water, leads to the supposition that it was at the same time a strong fortification destined to command the navigation. At a height of eighty feet above the water, soldiers were protected against the missiles of the Dacian ships, while the fleet of the enemy, in passing that bridge, ran the risk of destruction. This bridge was either at Szernecz in Hungary, or five leagues above the junction of the Olt with the Danube, in Wallachia, not far from Nicopolis, where ruins of the Roman colonies Romula and Castra Nova, and a Roman road, which is pretty well preserved, still exist.

3. Roman Subdivision of Dacia.

I. AFTER the reduction of Dacia into a Roman province, it was subdivided into, 1. Dacia Riparia or Ripansis. 2. Dacia Mediterranea. 3. Dacia Alpensis.

II. Dacia Riparia or Ripensis was so called because it lay along the banks of the Danube; Dacia Mediterranea because situate in the midland parts; and Dacia Alpensis because lying in the immediate vicinity of the Carpathian Mountains, or, as they were sometimes less correctly called, the Bastarnic Alps.

III. For an account of what was afterward called *Dacia Aurcliani*, consult the geographical sketch of Mesia, page 245.

4. MOUNTAINS.

I. Carpātes Mons ($Kap\pi \acute{a}\tau\eta\varsigma$ $\acute{o}po\varsigma$), now the Carpathian Mountains, separating Dacia on the north from Sarmatia Europæa. This range was sometimes called Alpes Bastarnicæ, though, more correctly perhaps, the latter were merely a branch of the former. Cæsar makes the Carpathian Mountains a continuation of the Hercynia Silva. Strabo and Pliny both speak of it, but without giving any appellation to the chain. The name Carpates ($Kap\pi \acute{a}\tau\eta\varsigma$) first occurs in Ptolemy.

II. Serrorum Montes, mentioned by Ammianus Marcellinus, and being that part of the Carpathian chain which separates Transylvania from Wallachia.

5. RIVERS.

The main stream is the Danube, Danubius or Ister, which has already been described under the head of Germany. All the other rivers are tributaries of the Danube, and the most important of them are the following: 1. Tibiscus, now the Theiss. Pliny calls it Parthissus, and Jornandes Tisianus or Thysia. Into the Tibiscus falls the Marisus or Marisia, now the Marosch. 2. Apus, now the Nera. 3. Rhabon, now the Syl. It is supposed to have been the same with the Sargelia of Dio Cassius, and the Gilfil of Jornandes. 4. Aluta, now the Olt. 5. Ordessus, now the Sereth. 6. Naparis, now the Ardschisch, according to Mannert, but, according to D'Anville, the Proava. 7. Agarus, now the Berda. 8. Hierasus, called by Herodotus Poras, now the Pruth.

6. CITIES.

WE will merely enumerate a few of the more important places, commencing on the west. 1. Arcidava, near the modern Slatina. The Roman ruins in this quarter are yet plainly visible. 2. Centum Putca, to the north. The ancient name points to the Roman origin of the place, and the numerous exeavations made in its neighborhood for springs. The site is near the modern Oraviza. 3. Tibiscum or Tiviscum, on the western side of the River Temesz, at its junction with the Bistra. It was a municipium, and a place of importance. The ruins lie near the modern Cavaran. 4. Sarmizegethusa, to the southeast, the residence of King Decebalus. Subsequently a Roman colony was sent to this place by Trajan, and the name of the city was changed to Ulpia Trajani, or Colonia Ulpia Trajana Augusta. It then became the capital of the whole province, and was adorned with an amphitheatre, aqueducts, &e., and protected by a strong wall. Its ruins are found near Varhely. 5. Apulum, to the northeast, on the Marisus or Marosch. It was a Roman municipium, and a place of great importance. The ruins are found near Carlsburg. It was also called Alba Julia Colonia. 6. Returning to the Danube we find Zerna, an important Roman colony a short distance east of the Pons Trajani. In the Pandects the place is called Colonia Zernensium. The name of the town is evidently connected with that of the neighboring river Czerna or Tzerna. 7. Drubetis or Druphegis, to the southeast, on the Rhabon or Syl, in the vicinity of what is now Crajova.

V. SARMĂTIA EUROPÆA.

1. NAME AND EXTENT.

I. According to Ptolemy, the name Sarmatia was applied to all that tract of country which lay between the Vistüla on the west, and the Rha, now the Wolga, on the east. This was divided into two parts by the River Tanais, now the Don, and the western portion was called Sarmatia Europæa; the eastern, Sarmatia Asiatica

II. European Sarmatia was bounded on the north by the Occanus Sarmăticus, another name for the southern part of the Mare Suevicum or Baltic, and the Terra Incognita; on the west by the Vistula and the Montes Sarmatici; on the south by Dacia, the Euxine, the Tauric Chersonese, and the Palus Mæotis; and on the east, as before stated, by the Tanais. It corresponded, therefore, to part of Russia, Poland, Lithuania, Prussia, &c.

2. HISTORY, TRIBES, &c.

I. Neither Herodotus nor Strabo makes mention of the European Sarmatians. The Sauromatæ of Herodotus dwelt to the east of the Tanaīs, and inhabited a tract of country extending northward from the Palus Mæōtis equal to fifteen days' journey in length. Herodotus also says that the Sauromatæ sprang from the intercourse of a body of Scythians with some Amazons who came from the River Thermōdon in Asia Minor, and that their language was a corrupted form of the Scythian. Strabo likewise places the Sauromatæ between the Tanaïs and the Caspian, and speaks of the people west of the Tanaïs as Scythians.

II. European Sarmatia therefore comprehended the Scythia of Herodotus, which may be said, in general terms, to have comprised the southeastern part of Europe, between the Carpathian Mountains and the River Tanaïs.

III. The principal nations in European Sarmatia were, 1. The Venědæ or Venědi, on the Baltic. 2. The Peucīni or Bastarnæ, in the neighborhood of the Carpathian Mountains. 3. The Iazỹges, Rhoxòlāni, and Hamaxòbii, in the southern part of modern Russia. 4. The Alauni or Alani Scythæ, in the central part of Russia, in the neighborhood of Moscow. The knowledge which the ancients possessed of these people was very limited. They are universally represented as a nomade race with filthy habits. The Venedi appear to have been of German origin. They were occupied particularly with the carrying trade of amber, that substance being found in great abundance along their shores. At a later day they were called Winidi or Wendi, and many have supposed that the Veneti in Italy were a branch of this people.

The Scythians will be more particularly mentioned under the head of Asia. It will be sufficient here to state that they were in all probability a Mongolian race. The European Scythians, according to the account of Herodotus, were originally from Asia, and were driven from their settlements to the north of the Araxes by the Massagetæ. After crossing the Araxes they descended into Europe, and drove out the Cimmerians from the country which was afterward called Scythia. The date of their migration into Europe may be determined with tolerable accuracy, if the irruption of the Cimmerians into Lydia in the reign of Ardys (about B.C. 640) was the immediate consequence of their defeat by the Scythians.

3. RIVERS.

(A.) Rivers flowing into the Oceanus Sarmaticus.

1. Vistüla. Already mentioned in the geography of Germany. 2. Guttälus, now the Pregel. 3. Chronus, now the Niemen. 4. Turuntus, now the Windau, according to Mannert and Gosselin. 5. Rhubon, now probably the Dūna.

(B.) Rivers flowing into the Pontus Euxinus.

1. Danastrus (or Danaster), called by Ptolemy the Tyras (Τύρας), now the Dniester. 2. Hypānis ("Υπανις), now the Bog. 3. Borysthēnes (Βορυσθένης), called, also, the Danapris, now the Dnieper. 4. Hypācāris, now the Canikschak, falling into the Sinus Carcinītes, near the city of Carcīne. Ptolemy calls this river the Carcinites.

(C.) Rivers flowing into the Palus Mæotis.

1. Lycus $(\Lambda \acute{\nu} \kappa o_{\varsigma})$, now probably the Kalmius. 2. Tanāis $(T\acute{a}v ai_{\varsigma})$, now the Don, rising in the Valdai hills, in the government of Tula, and having a course of about eight hundred miles. Herodotus appears to have confounded it in the upper part of its course with the Rha or Wolga. As regards the root of the name Tanais, &c., consult Obs. 2, page 10.

4. SEAS, GULFS, STRAITS, &c.

1. Sarmāticus Oceanus (Σαρματικὸς 'Ωκεανός), a name given by Ptolemy to the southern part of the Mare Sucvicum or Baltic Sea, lying along the coast of East Prussia, West Prussia, and part of Pomerania. At its eastern extremity was the Venedicus Sinus, now the Gulf of Riga. Immediately adjacent to the Sarmaticus Oceanus was the Clylipenus Sinus, now the Gulf of Finnland. What Ptolemy calls the island of Baltia in the Sarmatic Ocean, other names for which island were Basilia and Abalus, appears to have been, not an island, but the southern extremity of Sweden.

2. Pontus Euxīnus (Πόντος Εὐξεινος), now the Euxine or Black Sea. This sea had various names, such as Mare Cimmerium, Mare Ponticum, &c. Its ordinary name Euxinus has already been explained (page 10). The Euxine was navigated at an early period by the Greeks. The discovery of the channel which leads to it from the Archipelago is probably indicated by the fable of Phrixus and Helle, and the first voyage into it by the expedition of Jason. At a later period the Greeks, and more especially the Ionian Greeks of Miletus, formed numerous establishments along its shores, from which they exported slaves, cattle, and corn in great quantities. The ports of the Crimea and the region near the Borysthenes exported large quantities of grain to Athens and the Peloponnesus, which trade we find mentioned in Herodotus (vii., 147) as existing at the time of the invasion of Xerxes, B.C. 480. Under the Romans the shores of the Euxine became pretty well known, and a "Periplus," or kind of survey of this sea, is among the works attributed to Arrian. In the times of the Byzantine emperors, Constantinople drew from it a considerable part of its provisions, and in the twelfth century the Genoese formed some establishments on its northeastern coast, and carried on a very active commerce overland with India; but, when Constantinople was taken by the Turks, the commerce and navigation of the Black Sea were nearly annihilated, their policy being averse to permitting foreign vessels to pass the Straits of Constantinople. Thus the Black Sea remained closed to the seafaring nations for two centuries, until the Russian power and commerce arose. For an account of the Bosporus Thracius and the Bosporus Cimmerius, consult page 9, seq.

3. Palus Mæōtis, now the Sea of Azof or Assow. The term Palus, "lake or marsh," appears more applicable to this sheet of water than that of "sea," for it is a lake, and a shallow lake too. In the centre, where the depth is greatest, it is in a few places seven fathoms and a half, but on an average only between six and seven; and this depth continues to the Strait of Caffa or Feodosia, the ancient Bosporus Cimmerius, by which it is united to the Euxine. Toward all the other shores its depth decreases to five fathoms, and even four and a half. The shallowness of this sea was well known to the Greeks, and it was the prevailing opinion in the time of Aristotle that it was rapidly filling up by the earthy matter brought down by the rivers which empty into it. The same opinion has been maintained by some modern travellers; but we do not possess data by which this question can be decided, since we have as yet no means of comparing the state of this lake at different and remote epochs.

5. CITIES.

I. Cities between the Tanaïs and Borysthenes.—Among these we may enumerate the following: 1. Tanaïs, to the west of the modern Azof or Assow, an important trading place, at the mouth of the River Tanaïs. 2. Hygris, on the northern shore of the Palus Mæotis. 3. Cremni, to the southwest, at the neck of the Promontorium Agărum. 4. Carcīne, at the mouth of the River Hypacaris, and at the head of the Sinus Carcinītes, now the Gulf of Perekop. Herodotus calls the place Carcinitis (Καρκινιτίς).

II. Cities between the Borysthenes and Danapris.—Among these we may name, 1. Serimum, near the modern Ekaterinoslav. 2. Metropölis, the same place, in all probability, with Olbia. Mannert thinks that it is a corruption of Miletopolis, one of the names of Olbia. 3. Olbia or Olbiopölis, on the left bank of the Hypanis, not far from the junction of this river with the Borysthenes. Hence it was also called Borysthenis, from its proximity to the latter stream. According to Herodotus, it was the central point of the Greek maritime settlements in Scythia. Olbia, according to Strabo, was founded by a colony from Miletus in Ionia, and hence was called also Miletopolis. It was a place of great trade, and strongly fortified against the neighboring barbarians, and it was adorned also with numerous public buildings, temples, &c. Hence the proud appellation of rò acru, "the City," which it assumed in imitation of Athens. The site is indicated at the present day by Kudak, in the government of Kiew.

VI. CHERSONESUS TAURICA.

1. NAME AND SITUATION.

I. Chersonesus Taurica, "Tauric Chersonese," was the ancient name of that peninsula which juts out southward from European Sarmatia, between the Pontus Euxinus or Black Sea, and the Palus Mæotis, c. Sea of Azof or Assow. It is now called the Crimea.

II. The isthmus which connects it with the main land was called Taphros or Taphra. On the west of this isthmus was the Sinus Carcinites, now the Gulf of Perekop, and on the east the shallow waters then, as now, called "The Putrid Sea or Lake" (ἡ Σαπρὰ Λίμνη, Palus Putris). The southeastern point of the peninsula was the Promontorium Parthenium, which is either the modern Cape Chersonese, or another promontory farther south in the neighborhood of the town of Sviatoi Gheorghi. The southern promontory was called Criû-Metōpon (Κριοῦ Μέτωπον), now Ajadagh or Kandjes Borun, and either the southeastern or the eastern point of the peninsula was called Corax Promontorium, now

Cape Kirkinos-Burnu. On the east the peninsula was divided from the coast of Asia by the Cimmerian Bospŏrus.

2. EARLY AND LATER INHABITANTS.

I. The earliest inhabitants of this peninsula appear to have been the Cimmerians, some of whom remained in it after the great body of the nation had been driven from their seats around the Palus Mæotis by the Scythians. Clear traces of this people remain in the names of Cimmerion, one of the cities of the peninsula, the Cimmerian Bosporus, the Cimmerian Chersonese (as the peninsula was sometimes called), and in its modern appellations of Crimea and Crim Tartary.

II. In the earliest notices of the Chersonesus by Greek writers, we find the mountainous region of the south and southeast inhabited by a piratical people, called the *Tauri*, from whom the peninsula was called *Tauria*, and whose name remains in that of the modern Russian province of *Taurida*, in which the Crimea is included. Who these Tauri were is a question of some difficulty. Strabo calls them a Scythian people, but Herodotus clearly distinguishes the Tauri from the Scythians, as being a different nation.

III. It seems probable, from various circumstances, that the Tauri were a remnant of the old Cimmerian inhabitants, who had maintained themselves in the mountains against the Scythian invaders. The name Tauri is supposed to be derived from an old root, "Tau," meaning a mountain. The Tauri were reputed by the Greeks to be inhospitable and cruel to strangers. They were said to offer human sacrifices, especially of shipwrecked mariners, to a virgin goddess, whom, according to Herodotus, the Tauri themselves identified with Iphigenia, the daughter of Agamemnon, and whose temple stood on the promontory of Parthenium.

IV. The Greeks became early acquainted with this peninsula, probably soon after the Ionian Greeks, and especially the inhabitants of Miletus, had begun to form settlements on the northern shores of Asia Minor, about six centuries before the Christian era. Panticapaum is called by Strabo a colony of the Milesians. Besides this place, they built Theodosia, now Feodosia or Kaffa, and some other places on the peninsula forming the west side of the Strait of Caffa. They preferred this part of the Chersonese from its containing a large tract fit for agriculture, and producing very rich crops, Strabo says thirty times the seed. It was at one time considered the granary of Greece, especially of Athens, whose territory, being of small extent and of indifferent fertility, was unable to maintain its great population by its own produce. At one time Athens annually imported from the Crimea between 300,000 and 400,000 medimni of grain. Strabo says that in one year the Athenians received 2,100,000 medimni from Theodosia; but the text is evidently corrupt.

V. The Greek colonies in the Chersonese were gradually formed into two states, that of Chersonesus, comprehending the smaller peninsula, on the southwest, and the kingdom of Bosporus, a narrow slip of low and fertile land, on the southeast. These two states were united under Mithradates, who is said to have died at Panticapæum. The kingdom of the Bosporus, with all the neighboring districts, then fell into the hands of the Romans, who gave it to Pharnaces, the son of Mithradates. Pharnaces, however, having invaded Pontus, and exercised great cruelties toward the Roman citizens, was attacked by Julius Cæsar and defeated. He fled to his kingdom of Bosporus, where he was immediately murdered, and his throne was given by the dictator to Mithradates of Pergamus, about B.C. 47. This kingdom of Bosporus continued under the

Roman emperors, but is only known to us from the occasional interference of the Cæsars in the nomination of a king, or in attempts to restore tranquillity. A race of half Greek, half barbaric kings continued to possess the Crimea and the neighboring coast of the Euxine at least to the time of the Antonines, and the kingdom of Bosporus almost survived the Roman empire, and only expired under the ravages of the Huns.

3. CITIES.

1. Taphros or Taphra, on the isthmus connecting the Chersonese with the continent. It is now Perekop. The name of the isthmus was also Taphros, and was probably derived from a ditch (τάφρος) which ran across it, and which was dug and fortified as a defence against the neighboring barbarians of the main land. This ditch, however, must not be confounded with that mentioned by Herodotus (iv., 320), which appears to have been in the peninsula itself, and at the eastern part of it. 2. Eupatoria, on the western coast, founded by Mithradates Eupator during a war with the Scythians. It is now Eupatoria or Kaslov. 3. Portus Ctenus (Κτενους), on what is now the Gulf of Achtiar, succeeds on the northern side of a small peninsula terminated by Cape Chersonese, while on the southern side of this same peninsula is Portus Symbolorum (Συμβόλων Λιμήν), on what is now the Gulf of Balaklava. On this peninsula stood the city of Chersonesus, called by Mela Cherrone, the full name of which was Chersonesus Heraeleotica. It was founded by a colony from Heraclea in Bithynia, and was a large and flourishing commercial city. Its ruins are to be found near Gurtschi. The peninsula on which it stood was sometimes called the Small Chersonesus, and the Chersonesus Taurica the Great Chersonesus, to distinguish it from the former. 4. Theodosia. on the eastern coast, now Caffa (Kefa) or Feodosia, a colony of the Milesians. and a large and flourishing commercial city. In the Tauric dialect it was called Ardauda, "the city of the Seven Gods." It was destroyed in the middle of the second century, and Old Caffa was subsequently erected on its site. This was succeeded by New Caffa, the present city, in its immediate vicinity, and which became a place of great trade under the Genoese. 5. Panticapaum, called, also, Bosporus, at the eastern end of the peninsula, on the shore of the Bosporus. This was also an early settlement of the Milesians, and carried on an extensive trade. It had a double harbor. This city was the residence of both the earlier and later kings of the Bosporus. The modern Kertsch occupies its site, which the Russians also call Wospor, a corruption of Bosporus. 6. Cimmerium, in the interior, now Erski Krim, or "Old Krim." There were several other places in the interior besides Cimmerium, but none of any importance.

II. COUNTRIES SOUTH OF THE DANUBE.

THESE consist of the twelve following countries, beginning from the west, namely,

5. MŒSIA.	9. Thracia.
6. ITALIA.	10. MACEDONIA.
7. ILLYRICUM.	11. GRÆCIA.
8. Epirus.	12. GRÆCÆ INSULÆ
	6. Italia. 7. Illyricum.

I. RÆTIA.

1. NAME AND EXTENT.

I. RETIA appears to have comprehended originally the whole country between the north of Italy and the Danube, and consequently to have included Vindelicia.

Dio Cassius, in his account of the conquest of the Ræti and Vindelici by Drusus and Tiberius, only mentions the Ræti. Strabo often speaks of them as if they were only one people; and Tacitus, in several passages, appears to include Vindelicia in the province of Rætia.

II. In the time of Augustus, however, these two countries formed separate provinces, of which Rætia was bounded on the west by the Helvetii, on the east by Noricum, on the south by Gallia Cisalpina, and on the north by Vindelicia, from which it was separated by the Lacus Brigantinus or Lake of Constance, and the River Œnus or Inn. It included, therefore, the greater part of the Tyrol, and the eastern cantons of Switzerland.

2. Inhabitants..

I. The Ræti are supposed by Niebuhr to have been an Etruscan people, and their country to have been one of the original homes of that race. They are first mentioned by Polybius as one of the communities through whose country there was a passage across the Alps. They were a brave and enterprising race, and for a long time committed constant robberies in Gaul and the north of Italy.

II. Augustus at length sent Drusus against them (B.C. 15), who subdued the southern part of the country, and delivered Italy from their depredations. But, as they still continued to trouble the province of Gaul, Tiberius also was sent against them, who attacked them near the Lacus Brigantinus, and reduced the whole of the country. The greater part of their youth were carried away, and only sufficient left to cultivate the land. The victories of Drusus and Tiberius are celebrated by Horace.

III. The Ræti were divided, according to Pliny, into many states or tribes. Of these the most important were, 1. The Lepontii, in the southwestern part of the province. 2. The Tridentini, in the southeastern. 3. The Genauni, whom Horace mentions, east of the Lepontii. 4. The Vennönes, near the sources of the Athesis, now Adige. 5. The Brixentes, north of the Tridentini. 6. The Brenni or Breuni, north of the Rætian Alps, also mentioned by Horace.

3. FACE OF THE COUNTRY, &c.

I. The great chain of the Alps passes almost through the centre of this province, and bears various names in different parts of it. On the western borders are the Alps Pennina, in the northwest are the Alps Lepontia, and on the north are the Alps Summa, succeeded by the Alps Ratica. These mountains were all inhabited by various tribes of the Rati.

II. Several large rivers rise in these mountains, of which the most important were, 1. The Rhenus or Rhine, rising in the Lepontine Alps. 2. The Rhodanus or Rhone, rising in the same vicinity. 3. The Ticinus or Tesino, a tributary of the Po, rising in the same division of the Alps. 4. The Addua or Adda, another Italian river, rising in the Rætian Alps. 5. The Athesis or Adige, rising in the same Alps, and flowing into the Adriatic; and, 6. The Œnus or Inn, a tributary of the Danube.

III. The valleys between these mountains were very fertile, and were particularly celebrated for their grapes, from which excellent wine was made. The Retian wine was the favorite wine of Augustus.

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IV. The only place of importance in Rætia was Tridentum, now Trent.

II. VINDELICIA.

1. NAME AND EXTENT.

I. Vindelicia was the ancient name of a tract which contains parts of the present countries of Suahia and Bavaria, in Southern Germany. It extended from the Lacus Brigantinus, or Lake of Constance, in a northeast direction as far as the junction of the Enus, now Inn, with the Danube, and from the northern frontier of Rætia in the south to the Danube in the north. On the east it had the province of Noricum.

II. In the Roman division of the provinces it was at first a part of Rætia, but in the time of Augustus it was formed into a separate province. At first it was called the province of Rætia Secunda, but this name was gradually supplanted by Vindclicia, which is first mentioned by Sextus Rufus (c. 8). The name Vindclicia is derived from that of the Vindēlīci, a warlike tribe in the southern mountainous part of the country; and it is thought that this tribe had its name from the Vindo and Līcus, now the Wertach and the Lcch, which were two of the rivers of the country, between which were their original settlements.

2. EARLY AND LATER INHABITANTS.

I. The original inhabitants of Vindelicia were probably of the same origin with the Ræti. The principal tribes were the following: 1. Vindēlīci, already mentioned. 2. Isārii, on the River Isārus or Isargus, now the Iscr. 3. Licātes, on the Licus, now the Lech. 4. Brigantii, on the Lacus Brigantinus. 5. A large number of Boii, who settled between the Œnus, now the Inn, and the Isarus, after they had been driven from their homes in Bohemia by the Marcomanni.

II. From the third century Vindelicia was constantly invaded by German tribes, and during the fourth and fifth centuries it was entirely occupied by the Alemanni and Boiarii, and the ancient population, among whom were many Roman colonists, were either exterminated or else became serfs of the conquerors, and were then Germanized.

3. RIVERS.

1. Danubius, already described. All the others that here follow are tributaries of that stream. Thus, 2. Vindo or Verdo, now the Wertach. 3. Lăcus, now the Lech. 4. Isărus or Isargus, now the Iscr. Not to be confounded with the River Isarus, mentioned by Strabo as receiving the Atagis, and emptying into the Hadriatic. This latter Isarus is probably the same with the Athesis, now the Adige. 5. Guntia, now the Gūnz. 6. Ilargus, now the Iller, separating, at the present day, Suabia from Bavaria.

4. CITIES.

The Romans founded many colonies in Vindelicia, a great number of which still exist, and their present names are generally corruptions of the Roman ones. We will enumerate some of these along with other places: 1. Augusta Vindèlicorum, now Augsburg, which Tacitus calls "splendidissima Ratia Provincia colonia." This colony was planted by Augustus about twelve years before the Christian era, and became the capital of the whole province. It stood near the influx of the Vindo into the Lieus, and between the two rivers. 2. Reginum of Castra Regina, to the northeast, on the Danube. It was previously a Celtic town called Artobrīga, and was converted into a frontier fortress by the Romans. About the beginning of the seventh century it took the name of Radas

pona, and is now Ratisbon. 3. Campodinum or Cambodinum, to the southwest of Augusta, now Kempten. 4. Guntia, to the northwest of Augusta, now Günzburg, where Roman inscriptions have been found. 5. Brigantia, to the southwest of Campodunum, and on the eastern side of the Lacus Brigantinus. It is now Bregenz. 6. Vemania, to the north of the preceding, now Wangen. 7. Batava Castra, now Passau, at the confluence of the Inn and the Danube. 8. Pons Eni, now Muhldorf, on the Inn. This place must not be confounded with Eni Pons or Enipontum, the Latinized name of Innsbruck in the Tyrol.

III. NORICUM.

1. NAME AND EXTENT.

I. Nōrīcum (τὸ Νωρικόν) took its name from the tribe of the Norici, who were the most celebrated and powerful one in the land. It was bounded on the north by the Danube, on the west by Vindelicia and Rætia, on the east by Pannonia, and on the south by Illyricum and Gallia Cisalpina. It was separated from Vindelicia by the Œnus, now the Inn, and from Gallia Cisalpina by the Alpes Carnicæ or Juliæ, but it is difficult to determine the boundaries between Noricum and Pannonia, as they differed at various times.

II. Noricum may be said, therefore, to correspond to the modern Styria, Ca-

rinthia, and Salzburg, and to part of Austria and Bavaria.

III. Noricum was divided into two nearly equal parts by a branch of the Alps, which was called the Alpes Norica. These mountains appear to have been inhabited from the earliest times by various tribes of Celtic origin, of whom the most celebrated and powerful were the Norici. Noricum was conquered by Augustus, but it is uncertain whether he reduced it to the form of a province. It appears to have been a province in the time of Claudius, who founded the colony Sabaria, which was afterward included in Pannonia. From the "Noticia Imperii" we learn that Noricum was subsequently divided into two provinces, Noricum Ripense and Noricum Mediterrancum, which were separated from each other by the Alpes Norica. The former, which lay along the Danube, was always guarded by a strong military force, under the command of a dux.

IV. The iron of Noricum was in much request among the Romans, and, according to Polybius, gold was formerly found in this province in great abundance.

2. TRIBES AND CITIES.

I. In addition to the *Norici* already mentioned, Noricum was inhabited in the west by the *Sevăces*, *Alauni*, and *Ambisontii*; but of these tribes we know hardly any thing except the names.

II. Among the cities of Noricum the following were the most important:

1. Norcia, the capital of the Norici, where Carbo was routed by the Cimbri, B.C. 113. It was besieged in the time of Cæsar by the Boii, and was subsequently destroyed by the Romans. The ancient site is near Newmark in Styria.

2. Juvāvia or Juvāvum, to the northwest, now Sulzburg, a colony founded by Hadrian.

3. Ovilia, called subsequently Ovilabis, to the northeast, and which took its name from the flocks of sheep accustomed at one time to be fed here. It was founded by Marcus Aurelius, and is now Wels, on the River Traun.

4. Lentia, to the northeast, on the Danube, now Lenz. It was built by Gratian.

5. Lauriacum, just below the preceding, now the village of Lohr, near the city of Ens, on the Danube. It was the most important place in Noricum Ripense, and was founded by Marcus Aurelius. There was here an important manufactory of bucklers.

6. Boiodūnum, at the junction of the Œnus and the Danube, now Innstadt.

IV. PANNONIA.

1. NAME AND EXTENT.

I. This province was bounded on the north and east by the Danube, on the south by Illyricum and Masia, and on the west by Noricum. It was separated from Mæsia by the Savus, now the Save, and from Illyricum by an imaginary line drawn a few miles south of the Savus; but it is difficult to determine the boundaries between it and Noricum, as they differed at various times. Under the early Roman emperors, Pannonia could not have extended much further west than the Arrābo, now the Raab, if Pliny is correct in placing Sabaria in Noricum; but in later times the two provinces appear to have been separated by Mons Cētius, now the Kahlenberg.

II. Pannonia, therefore, according to this last arrangement, would correspond to Sclavonia, parts of Hungary, Lower Austria, Styria, Croatia, and those parts of Turkish Croatia, Bosnia, and Servia, which immediately touch upon the Save.

III. The Pannonians are called Pxines by some of the Greek writers, but this appears to have been clearly a mistake, arising from the similarity of the names. The Pxines were probably a Thracian people, while the Pannonians belonged either to the Celtic or Germanic race. They were first attacked by Augustus (B.C. 35), and were subdued during his reign by Tiberius, and reduced to the form of a province. We learn from Tacitus that, at the death of Augustus, there were several legions stationed in Pannonia, which was then regarded, and continued to be so till the end of the Roman empire, as one of the most important of the Roman provinces, on account of its bordering upon the powerful nations of the Quadi and Iazyges.

2. Roman Divisions of Pannonia.

UNDER the early Roman emperors Pannonia formed only one province; it was afterward divided, but at what time is uncertain, into two provinces, Pannonia Superior and Pannonia Inferior, the former comprising the western, and the latter the eastern part of the original province. They were separated from one another by a line drawn from the point at which the Arrabo flows into the Danube, southward to the Savus. A new division of the provinces was subsequently made by the Emperor Galerius. The southern part of the two former provinces, comprising the country between the Dravus and Savus, was formed into a new province, and called Savia or Pannonia Secunda, but the northern part was still divided into two provinces as before. The western part retained the name of Pannonia Superior or Pannonia Prima; but the name of the eastern province was changed to that of Valeria, in honor of the wife of Galerius, who cleared a great portion of the land in the north of Pannonia of its woods, and connected the lake of Peiso or Pelso, now the Platen See, with the Danube by means of a canal. Pannonia was thus divided into three provinces, which division appears to have continued till the downfall of the Roman empire.

3. MOUNTAINS.

1. Mons Cētius, now the Kahlenberg, a chain fifty miles in extent. 2. Mons Albius, now Alben or Javornick, a part of the Alpes Julia. 3. Mons Ocra, now the Birnbaumer Wald, or that part of the Julian Alps which lies between Görz and Laybach. 4. Mons Claudius, now the Bacherberg.

4. RIVERS.

The principal rivers were, 1. The Arrabo or Narrabo, now the Raab, flowing into the Danube. 2. The Drāvus, now the Drave, a tributary of the same stream. 3. The Sāvus, now the Save, another tributary.

5. CITIES.

Pannonia possessed several cities of importance, the inhabitants of which appear to have principally depended for their support upon the numerous legions which were quartered in different parts of the province. Following the course of the Danube, the first city we come to after leaving Noricum is Vindöbona, now Vienna, called Vianiomina by Pliny, who places it in Noricum. In Ptolemy's time it was called Juliobona, and was the station of a legion. It is called by most later writers Vindobona, as first given by us; but in the "Notitia Imperii" it is written Vindomana. 2. The next city of importance below Vindobona, on the Danube, is Carnuntum, which in the early part of the Roman empire was the most important place in the north of Pannonia. It appears from the account of Pliny to have been a place of considerable commercial importance. The amber which was collected in the northern part of Europe was brought to this city, and thence conveyed to the different parts of the Roman empire. It was the head-quarters of the army of Marcus Antoninus in the war which he carried on with the Marcomanni. In the time of Ammianus Marcellinus, that is, in the latter part of the fourth century, it was almost without any population. Its ruins are in the neighborhood of Altenburg.

3. Below Carnuntum, on the Danube, was Brigantium or Bregatium, the site of which is fixed by Mannert at the village of Szöny, in Lower Hungary. Ammianus Marcellinus calls it Bregitio. It was the station of a Roman legion, and here the Emperor Valentinian I. died, while making preparations for a war against the Quadi. 4. Following the course of the Danube, we come next to Aquincum or Acincum, now Buda, or, as the Germans call it, Ofen, a name indicative of its natural sudatories or hot baths. It was the principal city in the province of Valeria, and the station of a legion. In a later age, Attila made it occasionally his residence. The Romans had a military station on the other side of the river, which was called Contra-Acincum, and the site of which is now occupied by the city of Pesth. 5. South of Acincum, on the Danube, in the province of Savia, was Milăta or Milata, afterward called Bononia, and now Illok or Ujlak. 6. Below it was Acumincum, now Peterwardein. 7. And below Acumineum was Taurunum, now Scmlin, the most easterly town in the province, near the confluence of the Savus with the Danube.

The most important towns in the southern part of Pannonia were, 1. Siscia, now Sziszek. 2. Cibalæ or Cibalis, now Vinkoucze. 3. Sirmium, now Schabacz. These three towns were all on the Save. Siscia was on the borders of Illyricum, and the most inportant town in Pannonia in the time of Augustus. Cibalæ or Cibalis was situate a considerable distance below the preceding, and was memorable for the defeat of Licinianus by Constantine. It was also the birth-place of the Emperor Gratianus. Sirmium was below Cibalæ, and, under the later Roman emperors, was the principal town in Pannonia. It was the residence of the emperors when they visited the province, and there was, according to Ammianus Marcellinus, an imperial palace in the town. 4. Mursia: at this place the flect of the Lower Danube was stationed, and near it Magnentius was defeated by Constantius.

V. MCESIA.

1. NAME AND EXTENT.

I. Masia was the name of a province of the Roman empire, extending north of the range of Mount Hamus, the modern Balkan, as far as the Danube, and eastward to the Euxine. Its boundaries to the west were the rivers Drinus and Savus, now the Drina and the Save, which divided it from Pannonia and Illyricum. It corresponded, therefore, to the present provinces of Servia and Bulgaria.

II. Strabo says that the old inhabitants of the country were called Mysi (Mŷooi), and were a tribe of Thracians, like their eastern neighbors the Getæ, with whom they have been confounded, and that they were the ancestors of the Mysi of Asia Minor.

III. The Romans first invaded their country under Augustus, and it was afterward made into a Roman province, and divided into Masia Superior, to the west, between the Drinus and the Œscus, the modern Esker, and Masia Inferior, extending from the Œscus to the Euxine.

IV. The conquest of Dacia by Trajan removed the frontiers of the empire further north, beyond Mesia; but Aurelian having, about A.D. 250, for purposes of safety, transplanted the Roman inhabitants of Dacia to the right side of the Danube, the name of Dacia Aureliani was given to that part of Mesia which was now occupied by them, in contradistinction from Dacia Trajani, as the old province of Dacia had been called. This act of Aurelian's doubly strengthened the frontier of the empire by rendering the Danube its boundary, and by abandoning a district too distant to be easily defended, and too thinly peopled to defend itself. Mæsia thus again became a border province.

V. At a subsequent period, the Goths, after several attempts, crossed the Danube, and occupied Mesia, during the reign of the Emperor Valens. The Meso-Goths, for whom Ulphilas translated the Scriptures, were a branch of Goths settled in Mæsia. Some centuries later, the Bulgarians and Sclavonians occupied the country of Mæsia, and formed the kingdoms of Bulgaria and Servia.

2. RIVERS.

All the rivers of Mesia that are deserving of notice flow into the Danube; such as, 1. Savus, now the Save, which receives the Drinus, now the Drina. 2. Margus, now the Morawa. 3. Timachus, now the Timak. 4. Œscus, now the Isker. 5. Escamus, now the Ozma. 6. Iatrus or Iantrus, now the Iantra. 7. Nocs, now the Kara Lom.

3. CITIES.

(A.) Mæsia Superior.

1. Singidunum, now Belgrade. 2. Tricornium, at the junction of the little river Moschius and the Danube, now Tricorni. 3. Aureus Mons, near the mountain of the same name, where Probus planted the vine, A.D. 278, now Crozca. 4. Margus, on the river of the same name, where Carinus was defeated by Diocletian, now Pobritzar. 5. Viminacium, now Widdin. 6. Ratiaria, now Arzer-Palanca. 7. Naissus, in the interior, to the southwest, now Nezza or Nissa. It was the birth-place of Constantine the Great. 8. Ulpianum, south of Naïssus, embellished by Justinian, and hence called, after this, Justiniana Secunda, now Carley Kostendil. 9. Surdica or Ulpia Surdica, in a plain watered by the River Œscus. The Emperor Maximian was born in its vicinity, and it was also famous for a

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council held there. It took the name of Ulpia from the inhabitants of Ulpia, in Dacia Trajani, having been transferred thither. It is now *Triaditza*, near *Sophia*. 10. Tauresium, to the southeast, Justinian's birth-place, now Giustendil.

(B.) Mæsia Inferior.

1. Nicopolis ad Istrum, at the mouth of the Iatrus, one of the tributaries of the Danube. It was built by Trajan in commemoration of a victory over the Dacians, and is now Nicopoli. This place was the residence of Ulphilas. 2. Dorostörum, on the Danube, now Silistria or Sistria, the station of the eleventh legion. 3. Axiopölis, now Rassova. Here, according to Ptolemy, the Danube changed its name to Ister. 4. Trosmis, to the northeast of the preceding, mentioned by Ovid in his Epistles from Pontus. 5. Egissus, to the east, Ovid's Ægypsus. 6. Tibisca, a fortified post, near the Pons Darii, on the spot where Darius Hystaspis constructed his bridge over the Ister. 7. Istropölis, below the mouths of the Ister, a Milesian colony, subsequently called Constantia, and now Chiustange. 8. Tomi, to the southwest, Ovid's place of exile, now Tomiswar, on the coast of Bulgaria. 9. Odessus, to the south, also on the coast, now Varna. 10. Marcianöpölis, west of the preceding, a settlement of Trajan's, and named after his sister Marcia. It is now called by the Turks Eski Stamboul, by the Bulgarians Pristhlara, and by the Greeks Marcenopoli.

That part of Lower Mesia which lay between the Euxine, the mouths of the Ister, and Mount Hæmus, and forming, therefore, a considerable tract along the shore, was sometimes called Pontus, not to be confounded, however, with Pontus in Asia Minor. Frequent mention is made of the former in the poetry of Ovid, after his exile. Tomi lay in this district, and Ovid's Epistolæ e Ponto derived their name from this quarter.

VI. ITALIA.

1. NAME.

I. The origin of the name Italia is uncertain. Some of the ancient writers derived the term from Italus, a monarch or chieftain of the Œnotri; while others made the word have reference to the numerous and fine oxen which the country produced, and accordingly deduced the name from the Greek $l\tau a$ -log, or its corresponding Latin term vitulus. Niebuhr, however, with great plausibility, maintains that Italia means nothing more than the country of the Itali, and is identical with Vitalia, the Itali having been also originally called Vitalia.

II. Other names for Italy were Hesperia, Ausonia, Saturnia, and Enotria. The first of these was originally given to it by the Greeks, and was subsequently adopted by the Latin poets, and means "the Western Land," having reference to the position of Italy, as being to the west of Greece. The names Ausonia and Saturnia originated with the Latin poets, and the former means "the land of the Ausones," an ancient people of the country; the latter, "the land of Saturn," in allusion to

the legend of Saturn's having taken up his dwelling-place in Italy when driven from the skies. The term *Enotria*, or "the land of the Ænotri," is of Greek origin, and was applied by that nation merely to the peninsula forming the southwestern part of Italy, where dwelt the Ænotri, an ancient race. The Roman poets, however, extended the appellation to the whole of Italy.

III. The name *Italia* was originally only a partial denomination, and was given at first to that southern extremity of the boot which lay below the *Sinus Scyllacēus* or *Scylleticus*, now *Gulf of Squillace*, and the *Sinus Terinœus* or *Lameticus*, now *Gulf of St. Euphemia*.

IV. It was afterward extended to all the country south of the River Laüs, in the west, which empties into the Laüs Sinus, and the city of Metapontum in the east, on the coast of the Sinus Tarentinus, Tarentum itself being still, as yet, beyond the limits of Italy, and belonging to Iapygia. At a still later period, when the Greek colonies in the south of the peninsula formed an alliance among themselves for the purpose of mutual protection against Dionysius of Syracuse on the one hand, and the Lucanians and Bruttians on the other, the name Italia comprehended the whole country south of a line drawn from Posidonia or Pæstum to Tarentum.

V. After the war with Pyrrhus, B.C. 278, when the Romans had become masters of the whole of southern Italy, the name *Italia* comprised the southern and middle parts of the peninsula up to the River *Tiber*, including also a part of *Picenum*. Again, about the time of Polybius, the name was used in a still wider sense, embracing the whole country to the south of the *Rubicon*, on the upper coast, and the *Macra* on the lower. And finally, in the reign of Augustus, the name *Italia* was extended to the foot of the Alps.

VI. Previously to this last-mentioned and final extension of the name, the country between the Alps and the rivers Rubicon and Macra had been called Gallia Cisalpina, or Gaul on this (the Roman) side of the Alps, to distinguish it from Gallia Transalpina, or Gaul beyond the Alps. So again, when Italy extended up to the Rubicon and Macra, it was commonly regarded as being subdivided into two portions, namely, Italia Propria and Magna Græcia, the boundaries between the two

being the River Silarus, now Sele, on the lower coast, flowing into the Sinus Pæstanus and the Frento, now Fortore, on the upper, near the southern confines of the territory of the Frentani.

VII. Hence arose the common division of the peninsula into three great portions, namely, *Gallia Cisalpina* in the north, *Italia Propria* in the centre, and *Magna Gracia* in the south.

Obs. 1. The derivation of the name Italia from $l\tau a\lambda \delta c$ or vitulus, is given by Festus, "Italia dicta, quod magnos italos, i. e., boves, habet," and also by Aulus Gellius (xi., 1) from Varro: "M. Varro, in antiquitatibus rerum humanarum, terram Italiam de Graco vocabulo appellatam scripsit; quoniam boves veteri lingua lrahoi vocitati sint, buceraque in ca terra gigni pascique solita sint complurima." Both of these etymologies are deservedly condemned by Niebuhr. The Oscan name of Italy was Vitellium, following the analogy of Latium, Samnium, &c. Servius mentions Vitalia as one among the various names of the country. (Ad En., vii., 328.)

2. The name *Hesperia* was also applied sometimes to Spain, but then, for distinction' sake, this latter country was usually termed *Hesperia ultima*. (Consult page 14.) Virgil styles Italy *Hesperia Magna*. (Æn., i., 569.)

3. Saturn, according to the legend, concealed himself in Latium, and hence the poetic derivation of the name Latium, from lateo, "to lie hid." Compare Ovid, Fast., i., 238, seq. There is a singular coincidence between this fable and the derivation which some give of the name Saturnus from the Hebrew sathar, i. e., "latuit," "se abscondit."

2. Boundaries and Divisions.

I. The boundaries of Italy, in the reign of Augustus, may be given as follows: on the north the Alps, on the south the Mare Ionium or Ionian Sea, on the northeast the Mare Superum or Hadriaticum, now the Adriatic Sea, and on the southwest the Mare Inferum or Tyrrhenum, now the Sea of Italy.

II. The extreme limit of Italy to the northwest was formed in the reign of Augustus, by the Alpes Maritimæ or Maritime Alps, and the River Varus, now Var, which empties into the Sinus Ligusticus or Gulf of Genoa. The limit to the northeast, in the time of that same emperor, was at first Tergeste, now Trieste; but when the province of Histria was included by Augustus within the limits of Italy, the northeastern limit was removed to the little river Arsia, now the Arsa.

III. We are informed by Pliny that, after Augustus had extended the frontiers of Italy to the Maritime Alps and the River Arsia, he divided that country into eleven regions: 1. Campania, including also Latium. 2. Apulia, to which was annexed part of Samnium. 3. Lucania and Bruttium. 4. Samnexed part of Samnium.

nium, together with the country of the Sabines, Marsi, Equi, &c. 5. Picenum. 6. Umbria. 7. Etruria. 8. Flaminia, extending from the Apennines to the Padus or Po. 9. Liguria. 10. Venětia, containing Histria and the country of the Carni. 11. Transpādāna, comprehending what remained between Venetia and the Alps. This division, however, is too seldom noticed to be of much utility. The following distribution has been adopted by most geographical writers, and will be found much more convenient, namely:

1. Liguria; 2. Gallia Cisalpina; 3. Vēnētia, including the Carni and Histria; 4. Etruria; 5. Umbria and Picēnum; 6. The Sabīni, Æqui, Marsi, Peligni, Vestīni, Marrūcīni; 7. Roma; 8. Latium; 9. Campānia; 10. Samnium and the Frentāni; 11. Apulia, including Daunia and Messāpia or Iapygia; 12. Lucānia; 13. Bruttium.

3. EARLY AND LATER INHABITANTS.

I. The greater part of Italy was inhabited in the earliest times by *Pelasgians*, belonging to the same stock as the original inhabitants of Greece, and, in all probability, forming part of the great *Sclavonic* race.

II. The Sicūli, about the lower part of the Tiber, the Tyrrhēni in Etruria, the Aborīgīnes in the neighborhood of Reāte (called, also, Casci, Prisci, and Sacrāni), the Chōnes and Enotrians in the west, and the Peucetians in the east of southern Italy, appear all to have been branches of this same widelyspread race of the Pelasgians.

III. A second great tribe who inhabited the north of Italy were the *Umbri*, who are called the most ancient inhabitants of the country. Their territory seems originally to have been very extensive, and it is not improbable that they may have belonged to the same stock as the ancient Siculi; but the Umbrians are for us only the name of a great forgotten people.

IV. The country in the northwest of Italy was inhabited by the *Ligurians*, who in early times seem to have occupied a much larger tract of country than afterward: their history, however, is unfortunately unknown to us till the time when we find their nation in a state of decay and dissolution.

V. The country between the Tiber and the lower sea, and as far north as the Rætian Alps, was inhabited by the Etruscans,

or, as they called themselves, Rasena. They seem to have invaded Italy from the north, and to have subdued the Pelasgian Tyrrhenians and occupied their country. The Umbrians also lost a considerable portion of their territory by the conquest of the Etruscans: tradition related that the Etruscans conquered three hundred Umbrian towns; nay, they are said to have even carried their conquests as far as Campania; and Velleius Paterculus states that the towns of Nola and Capua were founded by them about forty-seven years before the building of Rome. There can be no doubt that the Etruscans were a mighty nation. Although their history is involved in the greatest obscurity, it is manifest that they possessed a high degree of civilization, and that arts and sciences flourished among them long before the foundation of Rome, which derived many of its religious and political forms from them.

VI. The country about Amiternum, in the Apennines, was inhabited by the Sabines, who formed the stock to which belonged the Marsi, Peligni, Samnites, and Lucāni. These tribes, which are now usually called by the generic name of Sabellians, produced a complete revolution in central and southern Italy. The Vestini, Marrucini, and Frentani belonged, in all probability, to the Sabellians.

VII. The Oscans or Opicans inhabited the country to the southwest of the Sabellians, from the Tiber to the River Laüs. The Ausŏnes or Aurunci formed a distinct branch of this race, and the smaller tribes of the Volsci, Sidīcīni, Saticūli, and Equi likewise belonged to it. The Oscan language was spoken throughout the southwestern part of Italy, and was understood even at Rome, where Oscan plays were performed and understood down to a comparatively late period.

VIII. The peninsula forming the southwest of Italy was inhabited by the Œnotri; and the districts to the north and east of the Œnotri were occupied by the Daunii, Chōnes, Peucētii, and Sallentīni or Messapii.

IX. The whole of southern Italy, moreover, from the River Silarus in the west, and the Frento in the east, was subsequently called Magna Gracia (Μεγάλη Ἑλλάς), on account of the numerous Greek colonies established in that part of the peninsula, which formed the connecting link between the civilization, arts, and literature of the Italians and the Greeks of the mother country.

4. HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

The history of ancient Italy resolves itself most naturally into that of the different nations inhabiting the peninsula, and in particular forms part of the history of Rome. We will, therefore, not dwell upon it here.

5. MOUNTAINS. Main Chains.

I. Alpes, now the Alps. Their name is derived from their height, Alp being the old Celtic appellation for a lofty mountain. The Alps extend from the Sinus Flanaticus or Gulf of Carnero, at the top of the Gulf of Venice, and the sources of the River Colapis, now Kulpe, to Vada Sabatia, now Savona, on the Sinus Ligusticus or Gulf of Genoa. The whole extent, which is in a crescent form, is nearly six hundred British miles. The Alps have been divided by both ancient and modern geographers into various portions, of which the principal are the following: 1. Alpes Maritima or Maritime Alps, extending from the environs of Nicaa, now Nice, to Mons Vesŭlus, now Monte Viso. 2. Alpes Cottiæ or Cottian Alps, so called from Cottius, a monarch over several Ligurian tribes in this quarter during the reign of Augustus, unto whom he was tributary. They reach from Monte Viso to Mont Cenis, and contain Mont Genèvre, which Hannibal, according to some, crossed on his march into Italy. 3. Alpes Graiæ or Graian Alps, the etymology of which name has already been explained (page 159, 7). They reach from Mont Cenis to the Little St. Bernard, and it was over this last-mentioned mountain, according to the more correct opinion, that the route of Hannibal into Italy actually lay. 4. Alpes Penninæ or Pennine Alps, so called from the Celtic Pen, "a summit," a name well deserved, since they contain the highest summits and most dreadful glaciers of the whole ridge. This chain bounds the southern side of the Valais, and extends from Mont Blanc to the Simplon. 5. Alpes Lepontiæ or Lepontian Alps, so called because separating Italy from the Lepontii, in the southwestern angle of Rætia. These are sometimes called the Helvetian Alps, as covering western Switzerland, and extend from Mont Rosa, on both sides of the Rhine, to St. Gothard. 6. Alpes Ratica or

Rætian Alps, so called because separating Italy from Rætia. They extend from the sources of the Rhone, through the Grisons and Tyrol, to the Dreihernspitz, on the borders of Salzburg and Carinthia. 7. Alpes Norīcæ or Noric Alps, so called from their running off into and traversing Noricum. They run from the last-mentioned point through all Carinthia, Salzburg, Austria, and Styria. 8. Alpes Carnīcæ sive Juliæ, terminating in the Mons Albius, on the confines of Illyricum. They were called Carnicæ from the Carni, who dwelt at their foot, and Juliæ from Julius Cæsar, who commenced a road over them, which Augustus completed.

Oss. 1. "How different," remarks Heeren, "would have been the whole history of Europe, had the Alpine barrier, instead of being near the Mediterranean, been removed to the shores of the North Sea! This boundary, it is true, seems of less moment in our time, when the enterprising spirit of Europe has made a road across the Alps, as well as a path over the ocean; but it was ef decisive importance in antiquity. The north and south were then physically, morally, and politically divided; that chain long remained the protecting bulwark of the one against the other; and although Cæsar, by bursting through these boundaries, in some measure removed the political landmarks, the distinction still continues apparent between the Roman part of Europe and that which never yielded to the Romans."

2. The march of Hannibal across the Alps is one of the most remarkable events in ancient history, and has given rise to much discussion among modern scholars. The following general results appear to have been sufficiently well established: 1. After a careful examination of the text of Polybius, and a comparison of the different localities, his narrative will be found, on the whole, to agree best with the supposition that Hannibal crossed the Graian Alps or Little St. Bernard, though it can not be denied that there are some difficulties attending this line, especially in regard to the descent into Italy. 2. Cælius Antipater certainly represented him as taking this route (Liv., xxi., 38); and as he is known to have followed the Greek history of Silenus, who is said to have accompanied Hannibal in many of his campaigns, his authority is of the greatest weight. 3. Livy and Strabo, on the contrary, both suppose him to have crossed the Cottian Alps or Mont Genèvre. But the main argument that appears to have weighed with Livy, as it has done with several modern writers on the subject, is the assumption that Hannibal descended in the first instance into the country of the Taurini, which is opposed to the direct testimony of Polybius, who says expressly that he descended among the Insubrians, and subsequently mentions his attack on the Taurini. 4. According to Livy himself (xxi., 29), the Gaulish emissaries who acted as Hannibal's guides were Boians, and it was natural that these should conduct him by the passage that led directly into the territories of their allies and brothers in arms, the Insubrians, rather than into that of the Taurini, who were at this very time in a state of hostility with the Insubrians. (Polyb., iii., 60.) And this remark will serve to explain why Hannibal chose apparently a longer route instead of the more direct one of the Mont Genèvre. Lastly, it is remarkable that Polybius, though he censures the exaggerations and absurdities with which earlier writers had encumbered their narrative (iii.,

47, seq.), does not intimate that any doubt was entertained as to the line of his march; and Pompey, in a letter to the senate, written in 73 B.C. (ap. Sallust., Hist. Frag., lib. iii.), alludes to the route of Hannibal across the Alps as something well known. Hence it appears clear that the passage by which he crossed them must have been one of those frequented in subsequent times by the Romans; and this argument seems decisive against the claims of the Mont Cenis, which have been advocated by some modern writers, that pass having apparently never been used until the Middle Ages. Of the latest historians, it may be noticed that Niebuhr (Lect. on Rom. Hist., vol. i., p. 170) and Arnold (Hist. of Rome, vol. iii., p. 83-92, note M), as well as Bötticher (Gesch. d. Carthager, p. 261), have decided in favor of the Little St. Bernard, while Michelet (Hist. Romaine, vol. ii., p. 10) and Thierry (Hist. des Gaulois, vol. i., p. 276), in common with almost all French writers, adopt the Mont Genèvre or Mont Cenis. (Smith, Dict. Biog., art. Hannibal; compare Ukert, Hannibal's Zug über die Alpen, appended to the second part of the second volume of his Geographie d. Griech. u. Romer.)

II. Apenninus Mons, now the Apennines. This chain, branching off from the Maritime Alps in the neighborhood of Genua, now Genoa, runs diagonally from the Sinus Ligusticus to the Hadriaticum Mare, in the vicinity of Ancona; thence continuing nearly parallel with the Adriatic as far as the Garganum Promontorium, now the Promontory of Gargano, it again inclines to the Mare Inferum, till it finally terminates in the promontory of Leucopetra near Rhegium.

III. The inferior chains, as well as the individual mountains, will be given in the account of the several divisions of Italy.

6. PROMONTORIES.

The principal promontories of Italia were twenty in number, namely, nine along the lower coast, down to and including Leucopetra; seven along the southeastern shore, up to and including the Iapygium Promontorium, the Iapygium tria Promontoria being reckoned merely as one; and four along the upper coast, as follows:

1. On the Lower Coast.

I. Populonium Promontorium, a lofty cliff on the coast of Etruria, running out into the sea like a peninsula, and on which was situate the city of Populonium. It is now called Capo di Campana. On the summit of it was a tower for watching the approach of the tunny fish. From this promontory one could plainly see the island of Ilva, now Elba, and even Corsica and Sardinia.

II. Cossānum Promontorium, on the coast of Etruria, below the preceding, and deriving its ancient name from the city of Cossa or Cosa, in its immediate vicinity. There is here also a peninsula, forming a double bay, in the midst of which rises the Mons Argentarius, now Monte Argentario, which is also the modern name of the promontory.

III. Circœum Promontorium, on the coast of Latium, below Antium, now Monte Circello. This promontory, which is, in fact, a bold, projecting mountain, was fabled to have been the residence of Circe, the adjacent country being very low, and giving the promontory at a distance the appearance of an island. Some accidental resemblance in name most probably gave rise, in the first instance, to the legend. Homer's account, however, of the Isle of Circe, does not at all suit this spot. The Homeric island was a low one, whereas this promontory is a lofty one. The promontory of Circeii was famed for its oysters in the time of both Horace and Juvenal.

IV. Misēnum Promontorium, on the coast of Campania, now Capo Miseno, and forming the upper extremity of the Sinus Crāter, or Bay of Naples. It was so named, according to Virgil, from Misenus, one of the followers of Æneas, who was drowned here, and buried at the base of the promontory. The harbor of Misenum, or Misenus Portus, became one of the first naval stations in the empire, being the station of the fleet appointed to guard the coast of the lower sea. The neighboring country abounded with marine villas, and there was a celebrated one on the brow of the promontory itself, overlooking the sea, which belonged at one time to Caius Marius, and afterward came into the possession, first of Lucullus, and then of Tiberius the emperor, who died here.

V. Minervæ Promontorium, closing the Bay of Naples to the

southwest, was so called from a temple of Minerva which stood on it, and which was fabled to have been erected by Ulysses. It was also called Surrentinum Promontorium, from the city of Surrentum, which stood close by. The modern name of the promontory is Punta della Campanella. Another ancient name was Sirēnūsūrum Promontorium, or Cape of the Sirens.

VI. Posidium Promontorium, on the coast of Lucania, and inclosing the Sinus Pæstanus, or Gulf of Salerno, to the south. It is now Punta di Licosa.

VII. Palinurum Promontorium, also on the coast of Lucania, and now Capo di Palinuro. Tradition ascribed the name of this promontory to Palinurus, the pilot of Æneas, who was buried on it. Orosius records a disastrous shipwreck on the rock of Palinurus, sustained by a Roman fleet on its return from Africa, when one hundred and fifty vessels were lost. Augustus also encountered great peril on this part of the coast, when, according to Appian, many of his ships were dashed against this headland.

VIII. Cænys Promontorium, just below the famous rock of Scylla, and facing the Promontory of Pelōrus in Sicily, forming by means of it the narrowest part of the Frĕtum Siculum. The modern name is Punta del Pezzo, called, also, Coda del Volpe. Holstenius less correctly contends for the Torre del Cavallo.

IX. Leucopetra Promontorium, or, as its name indicates in Greek, the White-Rock Promontory, just below Rhēgium, on the Frētum Sicūlum, and regarded by all ancient writers on the geography of Italy as the termination of the Apennines. A difference of opinion exists as to the modern point of land which answers to it. The one most generally followed is in favor of the Capo dell' Armi.

2. On the Southeastern Shore.

I. Hercălis Promontorium or Hercăleum Promontorium, the most southern angle of Italy to the east, and formed by a spur of the Apennines. It is now Capo Spartivento.

II. Zephyrium Promontorium, a short distance to the northeast of the preceding, now Capo di Bruzzano. The Locrians who settled in this quarter from Greece, derived from this promontory the appellation of Epizephyrii, as having originally established themselves on the Zephyrian promontory.

III. Cocintum Promontorium, to the northeast of the preceding, now Capo di Stilo. According to Polybius, this promontory marked the separation of the Ionian from the Sicilian Sea.

IV. Iapygum Tria Promontoria, three capes, in close proximity, shutting in the Sinus Scylläcius, or Gulf of Squiliace, to the northeast. Their modern names are Capo della Castella, Capo Rizzuto, and Capo della Nave. Close to these capes were formerly two rocks or islets, each distinguished by a specific appellation, but which have now entirely disappeared. The nearest was reported to be Ogygia, the island of Calypso, where Ulysses was so long detained an unwilling prisoner. The other, the more distant of the two, was called the island of the Dioseuri.

V. Lacinium Promontorium, a short distance above, to the northeast, and forming the lower extremity of the Sinus Tarentinus, or Gulf of Taranto. It is now called Capo delle Colonne and Capo Nao, from the remains of the celebrated temple of the Lacinian Juno, which are still visible on its summit. edifice was famed for its great antiquity, the magnificence of its decorations, and the veneration with which it was regarded. It was surrounded by a thick grove of aged trees, in the midst of which were spacious meads. Here numerous flocks and herds were pastured in perfect security, as they were accounted sa-From the profits accruing out of the sale of this cattle, which was destined for sacrifices, it is said that a column of solid gold was creeted and consecrated to the goddess. On the festival of Juno, which was celebrated annually, an immense concourse of the inhabitants of all the Italian Greek cities assembled here, and a grand display of the most rare and precious productions of art and nature was exhibited. This sanctuary was respected by Pyrrhus, as well as by Hannibal, the latter of whom caused an inscription in Greek and Punic characters to be deposited here, recording the number of his troops and their several victories and achievements. But several years afterward it sustained great injury from Fulvius Flaccus, a censor, who caused a great portion of the roof, which was covered with marble, to be removed, for the purpose of adorning a temple of Fortune constructed by him at Rome. So great an outcry was raised against this act of impiety, that orders were issued by the senate that every thing should be restored to its former state; but this could not be effected, no architect being found of skill sufficient to replace the marble tiles according to their original position.

VI. Crimisa Promontorium, above the preceding, to the northwest, now Capo d'Alice. The River Crimisa, now Fiumenica, was a short distance below.

VII. Iapygium Promontorium, called, also, Sallentinum Promontorium, now Capo di Leuca, at the southern extremity of Iapygia, in the territory of the Sallentini. When the art of navigation was yet in its infancy, this great headland presented a conspicuous landmark to mariners bound from the ports of Greece to Sicily, of which they always availed themselves. The fleets of Athens, after having circumnavigated the Peloponnesus, are represented on this passage as usually making for Coreyra, whence they steered straight across to this promontory, and then coasted along the south of Italy for the remainder of their voyage. There seems, indeed, to have been a sort of haven here, capable of affording shelter to vessels in tempestuous weather. Strabo describes this celebrated point of land as defining, together with the Ceraunian Mountains, the line of separation between the Adriatic and the Ionian Seas, while it formed with the opposite cape of Lacinium the entrance to the Tarentine Gulf.

3. On the Upper Coast.

I. Brundisii Promontorium, one of the two headlands at the mouth of the harbor of Brundisium, now Capo Cavallo.

II. Gargānum Promontorium, an extensive neck of land, lying between what are now the Bay of Rodi and the Bay of Manfredonia, the latter being the ancient Sinus Urias. It is in this sense that Strabo understands the appellation, namely, as belonging to the entire neck of land, not merely to a part of it. This neck of land was formed, in fact, by the ridge of Mount Garganus, and its modern name is Monte Gargano, or, as some give it, Monte St. Angelo. The ridge itself terminates in a bold headland, which was also called Garganum Promontorium, and is now Punta di Viesti. Mount Garganus was covered with thick forests of oak, and is often alluded to on this account by the Latin poets.

III. Cumerium Promontorium, on the coast of Picenum, now Monte Comero, or, as it is sometimes called, Monte Guasco. This promontory has a semicircular shape, and on the declivity of the hill which formed it stood the city of Ancona.

IV. Polaticum Promontorium, at the southern extremity of Histria, now Punta di Promontore. Its ancient name was derived from the city of Pola, in its immediate vicinity.

7. CHIEF RIVERS.

I. Pădus, now the Po, rising in Mons Vesălus, now Monte Viso, and falling into the Hadriaticum Mare or Adriatic Sea. It flows from two small lakes on Monte Viso, the one situated immediately below the highest peak, the other still higher up, between that peak and the lesser one called Visoletto. waters of this second lake find vent in a great cavern, and this probably is the source to which Pliny alludes when he speaks of the origin of the Po as being a remarkable sight. This river was called by the Greeks the Eridanus. Its Celtic name was Bodincus. The whole course of the stream, including its windings, is about four hundred and fifty miles. Its waters are liable to sudden increase from the melting of the snows and from heavy falls of rain, the rivers that flow into it being almost all mountain streams, and in the flat country, in the lower part of its course, great dikes are erected on both sides of the river to protect the lands from inundation. The Etrurians are said to have first applied themselves to the embanking of the Po. It receives a great number of tributaries, its channel being the final receptacle of almost every stream which rises on the eastern and southern declivities of the Alps, and the northern declivity of the Apennines. The mouths of the Po were anciently reckoned seven in number, the principal one, which was the southernmost, being called Pădūsa, and now Po di Primaro. It was this mouth, also, to which the name of Ostium Spineticum, or Eridanum, was applied. It sent off a branch from itself near Trigaboli, which was anciently called Volana Ostium, but is now denominated Po di Ferrara. Pliny mentions the following other branches or mouths of the Po: the Caprasiæ Ostium, now Bocca di bel occhio; the Sagis Ostium, now Fossage; and the Carbonaria, now the Po d'Ariano. The Fossa Philistina is the Po grande, and the Tartarus, now

Tartaro, which communicated with it, is probably the Hadria of Stephanus Byzantinus, or the Hatrianus of Ptolemy. The Fossa Philistina is spoken of as a very considerable canal, having seven arms or cuts, commonly known by the name of Septem Maria, drawn off from it to the sea. These works were undertaken by the Etrurians for the purpose of draining the marshy lands about Hadria. The Po is rendered famous in the legends of mythology by the fate of Phaëthon, who fell into it when struck down from heaven by the thunderbolt of Jove. We will now proceed to name the tributaries of this stream.

(A.) Tributaries of the Padus from the North, beginning at the West.

1. Duria. There were two rivers of this name, the Duria Major and the Duria Minor. The Duria Minor was the more western one of the two. It rose in the Alpes Cottiæ, on what is now Mont Genèvre, and joined the Padus near Augusta Taurinorum, the modern Turin. It is now the Doria Riparia. The Duria Major rose on what is now the Col de la Seigne, where the Alpes Pennina commenced, and fell into the Padus between Bodincomagus and Quadrata, at what is now Crescentino. Its modern name is the Doria Baltea. 2. Sessites, to the east of the preceding, now the Sessia or Sesia. It passed by Vercella, now Vercelli. 3. Ticīnus, now the Tessino, one of the largest of the tributaries of the Po, rose in the Lepontine Alps, on what is now Mont St. Gothard, passed through the Lacus Verbanus or Lago Maggiore, and entered the Po a little distance below Ticinum, the modern Pavia. The waters of the Ticinus are celebrated by the ancient poets for their clearness and beautiful color. On the banks of this river Hannibal gained his first victory over the Romans. 4. Lambrus, now the Lambro, rose in the Lacus Eupilis, now Lago di Pusciana, among the mountains that separate the lower part of the Lacus Larius into two arms, and emptied into the Po between Ticinum and Placentia. 5. Addua or Aduas ("Abovas), now the Adda, rose in the Rætian Alps, formed in its course the Lacus Larius or Lago di Como, and, emerging from it again, fell into the Po between Placentia and Cremona. 6. Ollius, now the Oglio, rose in the Rætian Alps, formed in its course the Lacus Sebīnus, now Lago d'Iseo, and fell into the Po a little distance from Nuceria. It received in its course the Mela, now Mella, and the Clusius, now Chiese, which separated the Cenomani from the Insubres. 7. Mincius, now Mincio, issued from the Lacus Benācus, now Lago di Garda, flowed by Mantua, and, after a sluggish and winding course, fell into the Po to the west of Hostilia, now Ostiglia.

(B.) Tributaries of the Padus from the South, beginning at the West.

1. Tanărus, now Tanaro, the largest of all the tributaries of the Po, on the right or southern bank of the stream. It rose in the Apennines, where they branched off from the Maritime Alps, and after receiving the Stura, which still retains its name, and also the Urbis, now the Orba, fell into the Padus, near Laumellum, the modern Lomello. 2. Trebia, which still retains its name,

rose in the Apennines, to the northeast of Genua, and fell into the Padus a little to the west of Placentia. On the left bank of the Trebia, about eight miles from Placentia, Hannibal gained his second victory over the Romans.

3. Tărus, now Taro.

4. Parma, still retaining its name, and flowing by the city of Parma.

5. Nicia, now the Lenza, which the Æmilian Way crossed a little before Tanētum.

6. Gabellus or Secia, now the Secchia.

7. Scultenna, now Panaro.

8. Rhenus, now Reno, celebrated in history for the meeting of the second triumvirate, which took place in an island formed by its stream.

II. Arnus, now the Arno, rising in the Umbrian Apennines, and, after flowing through Etruria and passing by Florentia, now Firenze or Florence, and Pisæ, now Pisa, falling into the Mare Tyrrhenum. At its mouth was the Portus Pisanus. The Arnus anciently received the Ausar, now the Serchio, from the north, and the juncture took place where the city of Pisæ stood; now, however, both rivers flow into the sea by separate channels.

III. Tiberis, now the Tiber, on whose banks stood the city of Rome. It is said to have been originally called Albula, from the whiteness of its waters, and afterward Tiberis or Tibris when Tiberinus, a king of Alba, had been drowned in it. It is probable, however, that Albula was the old Latin name, and Tiberis or Tibris the Tuscan one. It is often called by the Greeks Thymbris (ὁ Θύμβρις). The Tiber rose in the Apennines above Arrětium, and after being joined, during a course of one hundred and fifty miles, by upward of forty tributary streams, fell into the lower sea at Ostia. This stream was also called poetically Tyrrhēnus amnis, from its watering Etruria, the country of the Tyrrheni, on one side, in its course, and also Lydius amnis, on account of the popular tradition which traced the arts and civilization of Etruria to Lydia in Asia Minor. The poets, of course, are full of allusions to this celebrated stream, and another poetic form of the name is Thybris.

(A.) Tributaries of the Tiber on the Eastern Side.

1. Tinia, now the Timia, was formed by several streams which united a little above Mevānia, the modern Bevagna, at which latter place it is joined also by the Topino. Of the streams that flowed into and formed the Tinia, the most celebrated was the Clitunnus, famed for the snow-white herds that pastured on its banks, and were always selected to adorn the Roman triumphs as victims to the Capitoline Jove. Pliny the younger has left us a beautiful description of this sacred river and its little temple, the ruins of which are still to be seen between Foligno and Spoleto. The stream rises close to the temple, and still bears the name of Clitunno. 2. Nar, now the Nera, rose on Mount Fiscellus, in the Apennines, above Nursia, and in the northeastern angle of the Sabine ter-

ritory. In the first half of its course it formed the boundary between the Sabines and the Umbrians, and then to the east of Interamna, now Terni, received the Velinus, now Velino, and after flowing onward through Umbria, fell into the Tiber near Ocriculum. The Nar was noted for its sulphureous stream. The River Velinus, before it joined the Nar, formed some small lakes, the chief of which was called the Lacus Velinus, now Lago di Pie di Luco. The drainage of the stagnant waters produced by the occasional overflow of these lakes and of the river was first attempted by Curius Dentatus, the conquer of the Sabines. He caused a channel to be made for the Velinus, through which the waters of that river were carried into the Nar, over a precipice of several hundred feet. This is the celebrated fall of Terni, known in Italy by the name of Caduta delle Marmore. The valley of the Velinus, in which stood the city of Reāte, was so delightful as to merit the appellation of Tempe; and, from their dewy freshness, its meadows obtained the name of Rosei Campi.

3. Allia, now the Aia, a small but celebrated stream, rose in the Crustumine hills below Nomentum, was crossed by the Via Salaria about four miles beyond the modern Marciglione, and fell into the Tiber at the distance of eleven miles from Rome. This river is memorable for having witnessed the disgraceful overthrow of the Romans by the Gauls under Brennus (July 18, B.C. 390), on which account the dies Alliensis, or "day on the Allia," was always marked as a most unlucky one in the Roman calendar. The defeat on the Allia was followed by the capture of the city. 4. Anio, now the Teverone, rose in the Apennines near the Sabine town of Treba, and fell into the Tiber about three miles to the north of Rome. Its earlier name was Anien, whence comes the genitive Anienis, which is joined in inflection with the later nominative Anio. It is not so full a stream as the Nar, but was considered, however, by the Romans as the most important among the tributaries of the Tiber, and hence received also the appellation of Tiberinus, whence comes, by corruption, the modern name Teverone. This river, in its course, passed by the town of Tibur, the modern Tivoli, where it formed some beautiful cascades. 5. Almo, now the Almone or Aquatacio, a small stream rising near Bovilla, about ten miles to the southeast of Rome, and falling into the Tiber a short distance below that city. At the junction of this stream with the Tiber, the priests of Cybele, every year, on the 25th of March, washed the statue and sacred things of the goddess.

(B.) Tributaries of the Tiber on the Western Side.

1. Clanis, now Chiana, rising near Arretium in Etruria, and falling into the Tiber northeast of Vulsinii. Near Clusium Vetus it formed a marsh termed Clusina Palus. It may be seen from Tacitus (Ann., i., 79), that a project was once agitated for causing the waters of this marsh to discharge themselves into the Arnus. 2. Cremera, a small river now called the Valca, rising in the neighborhood of Baccana, the modern Baccana, and falling into the Tiber a little below Prima Porta. It was in the vicinity of the place where this river joined the Tiber that the Fabii were cut off by the Veientes.

IV. Liris, now the Garigliano, a river of Campania, rising in the country of the Marsi, to the west of the Lacus Fucinus, and falling into the lower sea near Minturnæ. It is particularly noted by the ancient poets for the sluggishness of its stream. According to Strabo, its more ancient name was Clanis (Κλά-νις); according to Pliny, however, Glanis.

V. Vulturnus, now the Volturno, a river of Campania, rising among the Apennines, in the territory of Samnium, and falling into the lower sea at Vulturnum. A magnificent bridge was thrown over this river by Domitian, when he caused a road to be constructed from Sinuessa to Puteoli.

VI. Aufidus, now the Ofanto, the largest river of Apulia, rising in the Apennines, in the territory of the Hirpini, and flowing into what is now the Gulf of Manfredonia. It was remarkable for the rapidity of its course. On the banks of this river the fatal battle of Cannæ was fought.

VII. Metaurus, now the Metaro, a river of Umbria, rising in the Apennines, and falling into the Hadriaticum Mare, or Adriatic Sea, above Sena Gallica. It was rendered memorable by the defeat of Hasdrubal, the brother of Hannibal, when on his way with re-enforcements for the latter. The battle is supposed to have taken place near the modern Fossombrone, and on the left bank of the stream.

VIII. Rubicon, a small stream falling into the Adriatic a little to the north of Ariminum, but, though trifling in volume. yet important as forming, in part, the northern boundary of Italia Propria. It was on this account that it was forbidden the Roman commanders to pass the Rubicon with an armed force, since in violating this injunction they would enter on the immediate territory of the republic, under the government of the senate, and would be, in effect, declaring war upon their country. Cæsar crossed this stream with his army at the commencement of the civil war, and harangued his troops at When Augustus subsequently included Gallia Ariminum. Cisalpina within the limits of Italy, the Rubicon sank, of course, in importance, and in modern times it is difficult, therefore, to ascertain the position of the true stream. D'Anville makes it correspond with a current called Fiumesino: popular tradition, however, is in favor of the Pisatello.

IX. Athesis, now Adige, or, as the Germans call it, the Etsch, a river of Venetia, rising in the Rætian Alps, or the mountains of the Tyrol, and, after a course of nearly two hundred miles, discharging its waters into the Adriatic, north of the mouths of the Po. Next to this last-mentioned river, it must be looked upon as the most considerable stream of Italy.

X. Meduacus Major and Meduacus Minor, both rising in

the Rætian Alps, in the territory of the *Meduāci*, from whom they derive their name, and falling into the Adriatic to the north of the mouth of the Athesis. The *Meduacus Major* is now the *Brenta*, and the *Minor* now *Bachiglione*.

XI. Plāvis, now the Piave, further to the northeast. Pliny, who enumerates many of the most unimportant streams, passes over this, one of the largest in Venetia, in silence. This was owing, probably, to there being no place of importance on its banks. It is first mentioned by Paulus Diaconus.

XII. Timāvus, falling into the Sinus Tergestinus to the east of Aquileia. It was small of size, but few streams have been more celebrated in antiquity, or more sung by the poets. Its numerous sources, its lake and subterranean passage, which have been the theme of the Latin muse from Virgil to Claudian and Ausonius, are now so little known that their existence has even been questioned, and ascribed to poetical invention. It has been, however, well ascertained that the name of Timao is still preserved by some springs which rise near San Giovanni di Carso and the castle of Duino, and form a river, which, after a course of little more than a mile, falls into the Adriatic. Antenor was fabled to have penetrated to the vicinity of this river after the capture of Troy.

Some of the minor streams of Italy will be alluded to in the accounts given of the several divisions of the country.

8. LAKES.

(A.) Lakes in Gallia Cisalpina, from East to West.

I. Lacus Benācus, on the borders of Venetia, now Lago di Garda. It receives the small river Sarrāca, now Sarca, from the north, and sends forth from its southern extremity the River Mincius, now Mincio. Its dimensions, according to modern computation, are about thirty Italian miles in length and nine in breadth. The ancient measurement was much larger. Sirmio, its principal promontory, and on the southwestern shore of the lake, was celebrated as having been the favorite residence of Catullus, who commemorates it in some beautiful lines. It is now called Sirmione. Virgil speaks of this lake as subject to sudden storms, which circumstance has also been observed by modern travellers.

II. Lacus Sebinus, to the west of the preceding, now Lago

d'Iseo. It was formed by the Ollius, now the Oglio. Its modern name is derived from the town of Iseo, which appears to occupy the site of a town called Sebum, whence came the ancient name of the lake.

III. Lacus Lārius, to the west of the preceding, now Lago di Como. Servius says that Cato reckoned the length of this lake at sixty miles, and the real distance, including the Lake of Chiavenna, is not short of that measurement. This lake receives, or, more correctly speaking, is formed by the Addua, now the Adda, which again emerges from it, and pursues its course to the Po. The modern name is derived from the town of Como, the ancient Comum. A headland, running boldly into the lake at its southern end, causes it to branch off into two arms, and in the mountains connected with this headland the River Lambrus took its rise.

IV. Lacus Verbānus, to the west of the preceding, now Lago Maggiore, formed by the River Ticīnus. It is twenty-seven miles long, and, on an average, eight broad. In it lie the Borromean islands, which are the admiration of every traveller.

(B.) Lakes in Etruria, from North to South.

I. Lacus Trasimēnus, a few miles to the south of Cortona, now Lago di Perugia, which name it receives from the modern eity of Perugia, the ancient Perusia, lying to the southeast of it. This lake was famous for the defeat of the Romans by Hannibal, making his third victory over them. The battle was fought in a narrow valley along the southern shore of the lake. Hannibal had taken up his position on the heights, and as the Romans pressed forward on the narrow path between the hills and the lake, Hannibal fell upon and defeated them with great slaughter.

II. Lacus Prīlis, called by Cicero Lacus Prelius, and in the Antonine Itinerary, Aprīlis Lacus, on the shore to the southwest of the preceding, near the city of Rusella, and just above the River Umbro. It is now Lago di Castiglione, which must not be confounded, however, with the Lago di Castiglione, answering to the ancient Lacus Gabinus, near Gabii, in Latium.

III. Lacus Volsiniensis, to the southeast of the preceding, now the Lake of Bolsena, so called from the city of Bolsena,

on the northern shore, the ancient *Vulsinii*, which last gave its ancient name to the lake. The hilly banks of this lake were covered with wood, and its waters abounded with fish. Pliny, who calls it *Lacus Tarquiniensis*, mentions that it had two floating islands.

IV. Lacus Vadimōnis, to the southeast of the preceding, and near the confines of Umbria. It formerly existed close to the modern Bassano, and used to be called Lago di Bassano; but it is now filled up with peat and rushes. This lake is celebrated in the history of Rome for having witnessed the total defeat of the Etrurians by the Romans, a defeat so decisive that they never could recover from its effects. Another battle was again fought here by the Etrurians, in conjunction with the Gauls, against the Romans, but with the same ill success.

V. Lacus Sabătīnus, to the southwest of the preceding, and to the northwest of Veii. It derived its name from Sabăte, a city situated not far, probably, from the site of the present Bracciano, which now gives its name to the lake. It was said that a town had formerly been swallowed up by the Lacus Sabatinus, and it was even asserted that in calm weather its ruins might still be seen below the surface of the water.

(C.) Lake in the Country of the Marsi.

Lacus Fucinus, now Lago di Celano, or, as it is sometimes called, Lago Fucino. It was of considerable extent, being not less than forty miles in circumference. A small river, called Pitonius, now Giovenco, which entered the lake on the northeast side, was said not to mix its waters, the coldest known, with those of that lake. According to the same popular account, this stream afterward emerged by a subterranean duct near Tibur, and became, under the name of Aqua Marcia, the purest supply which Rome received from its numerous aqueducts. As this lake was subject to inundation, Cæsar, it appears, had intended to find a vent for its waters; but this design was not carried into effect till the reign of Claudius. After a continued labor of eleven years, during which thirty thousand men were constantly employed, a canal of three miles in length was carried through a mountain from the lake to the River Liris. On its completion, the splendid but sanguinary show of a real naumachia was exhibited on the lake, in the

presence of Claudius and Agrippina and a numerous retinue, while the surrounding hills were thronged with the population of the neighboring country. The Emperor Hadrian afterward repaired this work of Claudius.

(D.) Lakes in Latium, Campania, and Samnium.

I. Lacus Regillus, to the southeast of Rome, between Labicum and Gabii, and now il Laghetto della Colonna. The vicinity of this lake was the scene of a great battle between the Romans and Latins, which Niebuhr assigns to the mythical history of Rome.

II. Lacus Albānus, at the foot of the Alban Mount, and probably the crater of an extinct volcano. This lake is well known in history from the prodigious rise of its waters, to such an extent, indeed, as to threaten the whole surrounding country, and even Rome itself, with an overwhelming inundation. To remedy this, a subterranean canal was constructed, the rock being cut through for that purpose for the space of a mile and a half. The water discharged by this channel united with the Tiber about five miles below Rome. The work still exists, it is said, in remarkable preservation. The lake is now called Lago di Castel Gandolfo.

III. Lacus Avernus, in Campania, near Baiæ and Puteoli, now Lago d'Averno. It was separated from the Lucrine Lake, which lay in front of it, by a low and narrow strip of land, and was surrounded on every side but this by steep hills and dense forests. Gloom and darkness therefore encompassed the lake, and accumulated effluvia filled the air with contagion. The ancients even had a popular belief among them that birds, on attempting to fly over this sheet of water, became stupefied by its exhalations and fell into it. Hence the common, though erroneous derivation of the name (in Greek "Λορνος), from ἀ privative, and ὅρνις, "a bird." Here, too, it was believed, were the subterranean abodes of the Cimmerians, and a descent to the lower world. The forests and gloom, however, disappeared when Agrippa opened a communication with the Lucrine Lake, and constructed the well-known Julian harbor.

IV. Lacus Lucrinus, in Campania, and immediately adjacent to the preceding. Its shores were famed for their oysters and other shell-fish. In the year 1538, an earthquake formed a

hill, called *Monte Nuovo*, which displaced the water, and left no appearance of a lake, but only a morass filled with grass and rushes, and such is still the state of things at the present day. The Lucrine Lake formed part of the celebrated Julian harbor constructed by Agrippa.

Obs. The Julian harbor, or Portus Julius, may here be briefly described. It was called by this name in honor of Augustus, and was constructed by Agrippa under his orders. According to Dio Cassius (xlviii., 50), there were three lakes in this quarter, lying one behind the other. The outermost one, however, or Lacus Tyrrhenus, was properly only a bay. The middle one was the Lucrine, and the innermost one the Lake Avernus. The Lucrine was separated from the outermost lake, or bay, by a natural dike, eight stadia long, and of a chariot's breadth. There was also a separation between the Lucrine and the Avernian lakes. The outer dike was, according to Strabo, accustomed in storms to be washed by the waves, thus rendering it almost impassable on foot. Agrippa thereupon raised it higher. Dio Cassius adds that the same commander cut through the dike at either end, where it joined the land. These two openings were then strongly fortified. Agrippa at the same time made an entrance through the intervening land into the Avernian Lake, thus joining it to the Lucrine, and cut down the thick forests that stood upon its banks. The whole interior space occupied by the two lakes was called the Julian harbor, Portus Julius, the two entrances to which were in the outer dike. The object in forming this harbor was chiefly to procure a place along the coast fit for exercising and training a body of seamen previous to the contest with Sextus Pompeius, the son of Pompey the Great.

V. Amsancti Lacus, in the celebrated valley of Amsanctus, in Samnium, and in the country of the Hirpini, to the southwest of Trivicum, and close to what is now the little town of Tricento. The lake was remarkable for the mephitic vapors emitted from it, the waters being sulphureous, and on its banks was a temple sacred to the goddess Mephītis. The lake is still called Mefiti. Virgil has given a fine description of it and the scenery around.

9. GULFS AND BAYS.

(A.) On the Lower Coast, beginning from the North.

1. Sinus Ligusticus, now Gulf of Genoa. 2. Sinus Amyclānus, commencing at the Promontory of Circeii, and extending down to Caiēta, and forming now the upper or northern part of the Gulf of Gaeta. It took its name from the city of Amyclæ, which once stood on its shores. 3. Sinus Caietānus, extending from Caieta down the coast to near Cumæ, now the lower part of the Gulf of Gaeta. 4. Sinus Crāter, called, also, Sinus Cumānus or Puteōlānus, now the Bay of Naples. It

extended from the Promontory of Misenum to the Promontory of Minerva or of Surrentum. The ancient name Crater was given to it from its resembling the mouth of a κρατήρ, that is, of a large bowl or mixer. 5. Sinus Pæstānus, immediately below the preceding, and reaching from the Promontory of Minerva to the Promontory of Posidium. It is now the Gulf of Salerno. Its ancient name was derived from the city of Pastum; its modern one from the city of Salerno, the ancient Salernum. 6. Sinus Laüs, now the Gulf of Policastro. Its ancient name was derived from the River Laos or Laüs, now the Lao, which flows into it. 7. Sinus Terinaus, called, also, Lameticus, Napitīnus, and Hipponiātes, and now the Gulf of St. Euphemia. It derived the name of Terinaus from the city of Terina, now Nocera; that of Lameticus from Lametia, now St. Euphemia; that of Napitinus from Napitia, now Pizzo; and that of Hipponiates from Hipponium or Vibo Valentia, now Monte Leone; all these places being situate either on or near its shores.

(B.) On the Southeastern Coast.

1. Sinus Scyllacius or Scylleticus, between the Promontorium Cocintum and the Iapygum tria Promontoria. It is now the Gulf of Squillace. Its name was derived from the city of Scyllacium or Scylletium, the modern Squillace. The isthmus which separated this gulf from the Sinus Terinæus, on the other sea, was not more than twenty miles broad, and this circumstance suggested to the elder Dionysius the project of carrying a fortification across it, which would have been the means of cutting off the more southern Greeks from communicating with their allies to the north of this narrow peninsula, but he was prevented by the latter from executing this design.

2. Sinus Tarentīnus, the wide gulf extending from the Lacinian to the Iapygian Promontory, and now the Gulf of Tarentum, now Taranto.

(C.) On the Upper Coast, from South to North.

1. Sinus Urias, extending from the Promontory of Gargānum upward as far as the modern Punta di Mileto. It is often, but erroneously, taken for the modern Gulf of Manfredonia, below the promontory. The language of Pomponius Mela, however, and the position of Hyrium (whence it derived its name) on the coast above the Garganian Promontory, are decisive on this point. 2. Sinus Tergestinus, now the Gulf of Trieste. Its ancient name was derived from the city of Tergeste, the modern Trieste. 3. Sinus Flanaticus or Polaticus, lying between Histria and Liburnia. Its name Flanaticus was derived from Flano, a town on the Illyrian side of it, while it was called Polaticus from Pola, the chief city of Histria. The modern name is the Gulf of Quarnaro.

10. ADJACENT SEAS.

I. Mare Inferum, or Lower Sea, bounding the western coast of Italy, and called, also, Mare Tyrrhenum and Etruscum. It is now the Sea of Italy.

II. Mare Supërum, or Upper Sea, called, also, Mare Hadriaticum, the arm of the sea between Italy and the opposite shores of Illyricum, Epirus, and Greece, comprehending, in its greatest extent, not only the Gulf of Venice, but also what was termed the Ionian Sea.

Obs. Herodotus, in one passage (vii., 20), calls the whole extent of sea along the coast of Illyricum and western Greece, as far as the Corinthian Gulf, by the name of the Ionian Sea (Ἰώνιος πόντος). In another passage, he styles the part in the vicinity of Epidamnus the Ionian Gulf (vi., 127). Scylax makes the Ionian Gulf the same with what he calls Adrias ('Aδρίας), and places the termination of both at Hydruntum. He is silent, however, respecting the Ionian Sea, as named by Herodotus. Thucydides, like Herodotus, distinguishes between the Ionian Gulf and Ionian Sea. The former he makes a part of the latter, which reaches to the shores of western Greece. These ideas, however, became changed at a later period. The limits of what Scylax had styled 'Αδρίας, and had made synonymous with Ἰώνιος κόλπος, were extended to the shores of Italy and the western coast of Greece, so that now the Ionic Gulf was regarded only as a part of 'Aδρίας, or the Adriatic. Eustathius informs us that the more accurate writers always observed this distinction (ad Dionys. Perieg., v. 92). Hence we obtain a key to Ptolemy's meaning when he makes the Adriatic extend along the entire coast of western Greece to the southern extremity of the Peloponnesus.

11. FACE OF THE COUNTRY IN GENERAL.

I. In the north, where the breadth of the peninsula is greatest, it is protected by the Alps against the influence of the north winds.

II. The two halves into which Italy is divided by the Apennines are countries of a totally different character: the part east of the Apennines is a country of secondary, or still more frequently of tertiary formation, and of quite the same character as Illyricum on the opposite side of the Adriatic; the western part,

on the other hand, is mostly of a volcanic nature, and of the same kind as the islands of Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica; so that the Apennines rise between two large valleys, the deepest parts of which are filled on the one side by the Adriatic, and on the other by the Tyrrhenian Sea.

III. The northern part of Italy, between the Alps, the Apennines, and the Adriatic, forms an extensive plain (the plain of Lombardy), intersected by the River Po and its numerous tributaries; while the whole of Italy south of this large plain is a more or less mountainous country, including the richest plains and valleys, with hilly districts of the most beautiful and picturesque character.

IV. The whole peninsula enjoys, generally speaking, a clear, bright, and transparent atmosphere, and is endowed by nature with the greatest advantages and facilities both for agriculture and commerce. No wonder, therefore, that Italy in ancient times was one of the most populous and best cultivated countries. The number of its towns is said to have amounted at one time to one thousand one hundred and ninety-seven.

V. The climate of Italy appears to have been more severe in the winter season in ancient than in modern times. The language of the ancient writers clearly favors this conclusion. Pliny, for example, speaks of long snows being useful for the corn, which shows that he is not speaking of the mountains; and a long snow in the valleys of central or southern Italy would be an unheard-of phenomenon now. The freezing of rivers also, as spoken of by Virgil and Horace, would not well suggest itself to Italian poets of the present day.

12. ITALIA MORE IN DETAIL.

1. LIGURIA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. $Lig\check{u}ria$ was so called by the Romans from its inhabitants, whom they named $Lig\check{u}res$. The Greeks, on the other hand, called the people $Lig\check{y}es$ ($\Lambda i\gamma v \varepsilon \varsigma$), and their country $Ligyst\check{v}es$ ($\Lambda i\gamma v \sigma \tau \iota \kappa \dot{\eta}$).

II. Liguria, in the time of Augustus, was separated from Etruria by the River Macra, now Magra, and was bounded on the north and northeast by Gallia Cisalpina, on the west by Gallia Narbonensis, and on the south by the Sinus Ligusticus, or Gulf of Genoa. Its limits on the west were the Maritime Alps and the River Varus, now Var, while on the northeast it extended to the territories of the Anamani and Boii, two Gallic tribes.

Obs. 1. The northern limits of Liguria are somewhat uncertain. Geographical writers, however, generally make them to be the River Orgus, now Orca, which separated the Taurini, a Ligurian race, from the Cisalpine Gauls, and the River Padus, or Po. Niebuhr, however, and others make the Libui or Libicii, and the Lavi, both lying beyond the Po, to have been also Ligurian tribes.

2. The Ligures or Ligyes appear to have been in early times a very widespread race. If we may trust to the report transmitted to us by the ancient writers from the Carthaginian navigator Hamilco, they dwelt at one time upon the shores of the Atlantic Ocean, and were driven thence into the mountains by the overpowering pressure of the Celtic race. From the mountains they descended to the coasts of the Mediterranean. (Av. Or. Marit., 129, seqq.) Hence some regard this tradition as placing them on the banks of the River Liger (Ligyr) or Loire. Again, Herodotus describes them as dwelling above Massalia, now Marscilles, and in the time of Polybius they reached as far south as the Arnus, now Arno. Indeed, Niebuhr thinks it probable that they occupied at one time the whole country from the Pyrenees to the Tiber, with the Cevennes and the Helvetian Alps for their northern boundary. It is certain, moreover, that the Ligurians and Iberians were anciently contiguous. (Niebuhr, Rom. Hist., vol. i., p. 164, Cambr. transl.)

(B.) CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.

I. Dionysius of Halicarnassus says that the extraction of the Ligurians was unknown. It is generally supposed that they were neither Iberians nor Celts. Strabo, indeed, expressly states that they were not of the Celtic race.

II. Cato stigmatized the Ligurians as lying and deceitful, and some of the Latin poets also draw unfavorable pictures of their character. Other writers, however, speak highly of their industry, courage, and perseverance.

III. The Ligurians were celebrated as light-armed soldiers. The conquest of their country by the Romans was not effected until long after the second Punic war. Strabo relates that, for the space of eighty years prior to this, the Romans only obtained a free passage along their shore of twelve stadia from the coast. Their final reduction took place B.C. 166, and, in order to accomplish this the more effectually, whole tribes had to be carried out of the country. The conquest of Liguria was of great importance to the Romans, as this country afforded the easiest communication with Gaul and Spain over the Maritime Alps.

Obs. The passage of Cato referred to in § ii., occurs as a fragment of the Origines, and is cited by Servius, ad Virg., Æn., xi., 701, 715. The authorities on the other side are Cic. c. Rull., ii., 35; Virg., Georg., ii., 167; Diod., iv., 20; v., 39. Niebuhr is a warm advocate for the Ligurians against the attack of Cato. (Rom. Hist., vol. i., p. 165.)

(C.) CITIES AND PLACES OF LIGURIA.

1. Cities and Places on the Coast, from West to East.

1. Nicæa, now Nice, ten miles to the east of the Varus or Var, and therefore, strictly speaking, a city of Liguria. As, however, it continued subject to the Massilians even after the Varus had been made the boundary in this quarter between Gaul and Italy, we have considered it as belonging to the for-

mer country (page 110). 2. On the summit of the Alpes Maritima, and marking the limit between Italy and Gaul, stood the Tropæa Augusti, erected by that emperor, and having inscribed on it the names of all the Alpine tribes he had subdued, from the shores of the Mediterranean to the Adriatic. slight remains of this monument are still to be seen at the small village of La Turbia, a name evidently corrupted from Tropaa, about two miles above Monaco. 3. Portus or Arx Herculis Monaci, now Monaco. The place was of Greek origin, and Hercules, its reputed founder, was worshipped here. 4. Albium Internelium, now Vintimiglia, the capital of the Intemelii, a city of some size and note. From Tacitus we learn that it was a municipium. 5. After leaving the last-mentioned place, we cross the River Rutuba, now the Rotta, and come to Albium Ingaunum, now Albenga, the chief city of the Ingauni. This was also a municipium. Above the Ingauni, and among the mountains, were the Epanterii. Opposite Albium Ingaunum was the island of Gallinaria, so called from its abounding in a particular breed of fowls.

6. Vada Sabătorum, called, also, Vada Sabatia, and Sabăta alone, about twenty-five miles beyond the preceding, now Vado; not Savona, as Cluverius thinks, which answers better to the ancient Savo, further on. The name Vada Sabatorum marks the shallow and muddy nature of the shore. 7. Genua, now Genoa (in Italian Genova), mentioned for the first time in history by Livy (xxviii., 46) as having been destroyed by Mago the Carthaginian. It was subsequently rebuilt by the Romans and made a municipium. In the time of Strabo it was a place of considerable trade, particularly in timber, which was brought from the mountains, where it grew to a great size. Some of it, being richly veined, was used for making tables, which were thought scarcely inferior to those of cedar wood. Other commodities were cattle, skins, and honey, which the Ligurians exchanged for oil and Italian wine, none being grown on their coast. 8. Portus Delphini, now Porto Fino. 9. Segeste, now Sestri. In the mountains above this part of the coast were the Briniates and Apuani. So obstinate was the resistance which the latter of these tribes made to the Roman arms, that it was found necessary to remove a great part of them into Samnium. The River Macra, which formed the limit of Liguria in this

direction, and which is now the Magra, is, like most of the mountain streams on this coast, nearly dry in summer.

- 2. Cities and Places in the Interior, from West to East.
- 1. Augusta Vagiennorum, capital of the Vagienni, now Bene, according to Durandi; but less correctly, according to D'Anville, Vico. According to Pliny, the Vagienni extended as far as the Mons Vesulus, or Monte Viso. 2. Ceba, to the southeast of the preceding, now Ceva. It was famed for its cheese. 3. Aquæ Statiellæ, to the northeast of the preceding, now Acqui. It was the capital of the Statielli. 4. Pollentia, to the west of the preceding, on the Tanarus, now Tanaro. Several vestiges still remain near a village called *Polenza*. It was celebrated for its wool. 5. Alba Pompeia, a few miles lower down on the Tanarus. It is now Alba. This place probably owed its surname to Pompeius Strabo, who had colonized several towns in the north of Italy. It was a municipium, and the birth-place of the Emperor Pertinax. 6. Asta, to the northeast, now Asti. 7. Dertona, about twenty miles to the east of the preceding, now Tortona. It was a place of importance, and a Roman colony, supposed to have been established by the consul Æmilius Scaurus. 8. Clastidium, to the northeast, now Chiasteggio. It was celebrated as the place where Claudius Marcellus gained the spolia opima by vanquishing and slaving Viridomarus, king of the Gasăta. Clastidium was betrayed to Hannibal after the battle of the Ticinus, with considerable magazines which the Romans had laid up there, and it formed the chief depôt of the Carthaginian army while encamped on the Trebia.

Proceeding now to the northwest, and crossing the Padus, we come to the territory of the *Taurini*. From their position, indeed, they would seem more properly to belong to Cisalpine Gaul; but Polybius excludes the Taurini from his enumeration of the Gauls who settled in the plains of Italy, and Strabo and Pliny expressly call them Ligurians. The Taurini occupied the country between the Padus and the Alps, as far as the River *Orgus*, now *Orca*, to the east, while the position of *Fines*, now *Aviliana*, fixes their limit to the west. They are first mentioned in history as having opposed Hannibal soon after his descent from the Alps, and their capital, which Appian calls

Taurasia, was taken and plundered by that general after an ineffectual resistance of three days. As a Roman colony, it subsequently received the name of Augusta Taurinorum, and is now Turin (in Italian Torino).

The Cottian Alps, in the vicinity of which we now are, were ruled over by Cottius, an Alpine chieftain, to whom we have already referred (page 251). His capital appears to have been Segusio, now Suza. Here he erected a triumphal arch to Augustus, and here his remains were interred.

2. GALLIA CISALPINA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Gallia Cisalpina, or Gaul this side of the Alps, with reference to Rome, was the name given to the northern part of Italy, as occupied by the Gallic tribes which had poured over the Alps into this extensive tract of country.

II. This country was bounded on the north and west by the Alps; on the southwest by the River Orgus, now Orca, separating it from the Taurini; on the south by Liguria, the Apennines, and the River Rubicon; and on the east by the Mare Hadriaticum and Venetia.

(B.) HISTORICAL SKETCH OF AFFAIRS.

I. The whole of the rich country which bears at present the name of Lombardy, was possessed at an early period by the ancient and powerful nation of the Tuscans, who appear to have conquered it from the Ligurians.

II. Numerous hordes of Gauls subsequently pour over the Alps into Italy, and driving by degrees the Tuscans from these fertile plains, confine them at last within the narrow limits of Etruria. Livy assigns to these migrations of the Gauls as early a date as the reign of Tarquinius Priscus, or about B.C. 600.

III. The Gauls, having securely established themselves in their new possessions, proceed to make farther inroads into various parts of Italy, and thus come into contact with the forces of Rome. More than two hundred years elapse from the time of their first invasion of Italy, when they totally defeat the Roman army on the banks of the Allia, and become masters of Rome itself.

IV. After this, however, the Gauls, though they continue by frequent incursions to threaten and even to ravage the territory of Rome, can make no serious impression on that power. Though leagued with the Samnites and Etrurians, they are almost always unsuccessful. Defeated at Sentinum in Umbria, near the Lake Vadimonis in Etruria, and in a still more decisive action near the port of Telamo in the same country, they soon find themselves forced to contend, not for conquest, but for existence.

V. The same ill success, however, attends their efforts in their own territory. The progress of the Roman arms is irresistible; the Gauls are beaten back from the Adriatic to the Po, from the Po to the Alps, and soon behold Roman colonies established and flourishing in many of the towns which had so lately been

theirs. Notwithstanding, however, these successive disasters, their spirit, though curbed, is still unsubdued, and when the enterprise of Hannibal affords them an opportunity of retrieving their losses, they eagerly embrace it; and it is to their zealous co-operation that Polybius ascribes, in a great degree, the primary success of that expedition.

VI. At the conclusion, however, of the second Punic war, the Romans retaliate upon them, and their country, brought under entire subjection, becomes a Roman province, under the name of Gallia Cisalpina. At a subsequent period the name of Gallia Togata is also applied to it, or, rather, to that part which lay south of the Po, the cities in this quarter having obtained the privileges of Latin cities, and consequently the right of wearing the Roman toga.

(C.) ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY, &c.

I. The character which is given of this portion of Italy by the writers of antiquity is that of the most fertile and productive country imaginable. Polybius describes it as abounding in wine, corn, and every kind of grain. Innumerable herds of swine, both for public and private supply, were bred in its forests; and such was the abundance of provisions of every kind, that, according to Polybius (ii., 15), travellers, when at an inn, did not find it necessary to agree on a price for any article which they required, but paid so much for the whole amount of what was furnished them, and this charge, at the highest, did not exceed half a Roman as.

II. As a proof of the richness of this country, Strabo remarks that it surpassed all the rest of Italy in the number of large and opulent towns which it contained. The wool grown here was of the finest and softest quality, and so abundant was the supply of wine, that the wooden vessels, in which it was commonly stowed, were of the size of houses. Lastly, Cicero styles it the flower of Italy, the support of the empire of the Roman people, the ornament of its dignity.

(D.) PRINCIPAL GALLIC TRIBES.

In considering the tribes and cities of Gallia Cisalpina, the division of the country which most naturally suggests itself is that into Gallia Transpădāna, or Gaul beyond the Po, and Gallia Cispădāna, or Gaul this side of the Po. We shall follow, therefore, this arrangement.

Tribes in Gallia Transpădāna.

I. Salassi, in the northwestern angle of the country. The main part of their territory lay chiefly in a long valley, which reached to the summits of the Graian and Pennine Alps. The passes over these mountains were too important an object with the Romans not to make them anxious to secure them by the conquest of the Salassi. But these hardy mountaineers held out for a long time, and were not finally subdued till the reign of Augustus, who caused the country

to be permanently occupied, for this purpose, by a large force under Terentius Varro. This arrangement ended the contest; a large number of the Salassi perished in battle, and the rest, to the number of thirty-six thousand, were sold into slavery.

II. Libicii and Lævi, two tribes mentioned together by Polybius (ii., 17), and to each of whom it is difficult to assign a distinct territory. We must be content to know generally that they occupied the country lying between the *Orgus*, now *Orca*, and the *Ticinus*, now *Tessino*. They did not reach quite to the Alps on the north, as the Salassi seem to have extended some way into the plains situated at the foot of those mountains. They are said to have been of Ligurian origin.

III. Insübres, called Ἰσομβρες by Polybius, and Ἰνσουβροι by Strabo, and occupying the country between the Rivers Ticinus and Addua. According to Polybius, they were the most numerous as well as the most powerful tribe of the Cisalpine Gauls. They took a very active part in the Gallic wars against the Romans, and zealously co-operated with Hannibal in his invasion of Italy.

IV. Cenoman, to the east of the Insubres, from whom they were separated by the Addua, while the Athesis formed their boundary to the east. They are distinguished from the rest of the Cisalpine Gauls by the circumstance of their not having joined with the other tribes in war against Rome, and from their having even sided with that city against Hannibal. Subsequently, however, they became hostile to the Romans.

V. Eugänei.—These are spoken of as one of the most ancient nations of Italy, and as having once occupied all the country to which the Veněti, its subsequent possessors, communicated the name of Venetia. Driven from these their ancient abodes, the Euganei appear to have retired across the Athesis, and to have settled on the shores of the Lacus Schinus and Lacus Benacus, and in the adjacent valleys. Pliny says, on the authority of Cato, that they held at one time thirty-four towns: these were admitted to the rights of Latin cities under Augustus.

Tribes in Gallia Cispădāna.

I. Anamani, on the northeastern borders of Liguria, and extending to the Po. Their southeastern boundary was the Tarus, now Taro. Livy never mentions this tribe by any specific name, though he seems to distinguish them from their more numerous and powerful neighbors the Boil. The nature of the country occupied by these Gauls, intersected as it was by numerous streams descending from the Apennines, could not have allowed them to build many towns.

II. Bon.—This tribe, at some period or other, but when is uncertain, crossed the Alps, and established themselves in Italy between the Tarus, the Silārus, and the Apennines, having the Po for their upper frontier. Their wars with the Romans in this quarter were long and desperate; but they were finally subdued by Scipio Nasīca, and removed to the banks of the *Dravus* or *Drave*. Consult page 229.

III. Lingones.—This tribe occupied the extreme eastern portion of Gallia Cispadana. Polybius is the only author who has pointed out the district occupied by them in Italy. Appian characterizes them as the fiercest and wildest of the Gauls. The territory which they seized in Italy had previously been occupied by the Umbri.

(E.) CITIES OF GALLIA CISALPINA.

1. Cities among the Salassi.

1. Augusta Prætoria, now Aosta in Piedmont. It was built on the site of Terentius Varro's camp, after that commander had conquered the Salassi, as has been already mentioned, and was intended to protect the great military road in this quarter, which led over the Graian Alps. Augustus, for this purpose, established here three thousand Prætorians as a military colony, and gave the place its appellation, partly in allusion to his own name, and partly to the description of soldiers settled here. It was situate on the Duria Major, along the banks of which the road in question ran. 2. Eporedia, to the southeast, on the same river and road, now Ivrea, a corruption of Eporegia or Iporeia, the name of the place in the Middle Ages. It was an old Celtic town, and, according to Pliny, the name was derived from a Celtic term meaning "good tamers of horses." A Roman colony was established here, in obedience to the injunctions of the Sibylline Books, as Pliny likewise tells us, and the settlement subsequently became a municipium.

2. Cities among the Libicii and Lævi.

1. Vercellæ, the capital of the Libicii, now Vercelli, on the River Sessites, now the Sessia. It was a municipium, and a strong and important place. Strabo mentions some gold mines in its vicinity. Vercellæ lay on the road already referred to above, and another Roman road came in here from Mediolanum and met the former. 2. Novāria, about ten miles northeast of Vercellæ, now Novara. It was situate on a river of the same name, now the Gogna, and was a municipal town. mous battle of the Ticinus, in which Hannibal defeated the Romans, is supposed to have been fought to the south of this place, not far from the little town of Vigevano. 3. Laumellum, southeast of Vercellæ, now Lomello. 4. Ticinum, to the northeast of the preceding, now Pavia, on the River Ticinus, now the Tessino. It was founded, as Pliny reports, by the Lævi and Marici, and was at first their chief city, on which account we have given it a place here. Being situated, however, on the left bank of the river, it became subsequently, though less correctly, ranked among the cities of the Insubres. Tacitus

first makes mention of it, and states that Augustus advanced as far as Ticinum, in the depth of winter, to meet the corpse of Drusus, the father of Germanicus, and escorted it thence to Rome. Under the Lombard kings this city assumed the name of Papia, which in process of time has been changed to Pavia.

3. Cities among the Insubres.

1. Mědiölānum, now Milan, the capital of the Insubres, and, according to Livy, founded by that tribe on their first arrival in Italy, and named by them from a place so called in the territory of the Ædui in Gaul. This city is mentioned for the first time in history by Polybius in his account of the Gallic wars. The capture of it by Cneius Scipio and Marcellus was followed by the submission of the Insubres. In Strabo's time it was considered a most flourishing city. But its splendor seems to have been the greatest in the time of Ausonius, who assigns it the rank of the sixth town in the Roman empire. Ausonius flourished under the Emperor Gratian, toward the end of the fourth century. Procopius, who wrote a century and a half later, speaks of Mediolanum as one of the first cities of the west, and inferior to Rome alone in population and extent. At a later period, the frequent inroads of the barbarians of the north compelled the emperors to select, as a place of arms, some city nearer the scene of action than Rome was. The choice fell on Mediolanum. Here, too, Maximian resigned the imperial diadem, and the famous St. Ambrose established the see of a bishopric. Although subsequently plundered by Attila, it soon revived, and under Odoacer became the imperial residence. In its vicinity was fought the battle which put Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, in possession of Italy. met with its downfall, however, when, having sided with Belisarius, and having been besieged by the Goths and Burgundians, it was taken by the latter, and 300,000 of the inhabitants, according to Procopius, were put to the sword. It never, after this severe blow, regained its former eminence, although in the Middle Ages it became a flourishing and opulent place of trade. About ten miles to the northwest of Mediolanum were the Raudii Campi, plains rendered memorable by the bloody defeat of the Cimbri by Marius. A small place in this vicinity, called Rho, still preserves some trace of the ancient appellation.

2. Laus Pompeia, to the southeast of the preceding, founded, as Pliny reports, by the Boii, and subsequently colonized by Pompeius Strabo, father of Pompey the Great. It was at one time next in importance to Mediolanum. Its position answers to that of the modern Lodi Vecchio, which having been destroyed by the Milanese, the Emperor Barbarossa caused the new town of Lodi to be built at the distance of three miles from the ancient site. 3. Acerra, to the southeast, on the Addua, and answering now to Gherra. It is mentioned by Polybius in the Gallic wars as a strong and important place. city must not be mistaken for one of the same name in Campania. 4. Pons Aureŏli, to the northeast of Mediolanum, and between it and Bergomum. It obtained its name from the defeat of the usurper Aureolus, and is now Pontiruolo. 5. Bergomum, to the northeast of the preceding, now Bergamo. belonged to the Insubrian Orobii, whom Pliny, on the authority of Cato, distinguishes as a separate tribe, but whose territory is naturally included in that of the Insubres. 6. Comum, to the northwest of the preceding, and at the southern extremity of the Lacus Larius. It is now Como, and gives its name also to the lake. Comum, like Bergomum, was a city of the Insubrian Orobii, and was first colonized by Pompeius Strabo, then by Cornelius Scipio, and finally by Julius Cæsar. This lastmentioned commander sent thither six thousand colonists, among whom were five hundred distinguished Greek families. The place now took the name of Novum Comum. Pliny the younger was born here.

4. Cities among the Cenomāni.

1. Brixia, the capital of the Cenomani, to the northeast of Mediolanum, and now called Brescia. It became a Roman colony, but at what time we are not informed. It was also a municipium. Brixia lay on the little river Gartia, now Garza, while in front of it, to the west, flowed the River Mela. According to some, it was a city of Tuscan origin, and taken from that nation by the Cenomani. Catullus calls Brixia the "mother of Verona," because, though much smaller than the latter, it was nevertheless the chief city of the Cenomani. 2. Crēmona, to the southwest of the preceding, on the Padus or Po, and retaining its ancient name. It is supposed to have been of Gallic origin,

but it first acquired importance as a Roman colony, being, together with Placentia, the earliest establishment which the Romans formed in Cisalpine Gaul. This colony was settled, according to Polybius, the year before Hannibal invaded Italy. The Romans retained the place during the whole of the second Punic war, though it suffered so much during its continuance, and from the subsequent attacks of the Gauls, that it was found necessary to recruit its population by a fresh supply of colonists. The place flourished after this until the civil wars which ensued after the death of Cæsar. Cremona unfortunately espoused the cause of Brutus, and thus incurred the vengeance of the victorious party, its territory being divided among the veteran soldiers of Augustus. It soon, however, recovered from this blow, and in Strabo's time was accounted one of the most considerable cities in the north of Italy. The civil wars which arose during the reigns of Otho and Vitellius were the source of much severer affliction to this city than any former evil, as the fate of the empire was more than once decided between large contending armies in its immediate vicinity. After the defeat of Vitellius's party by the troops of Vespasian, it was entered by the latter, and exposed to all the horrid excesses of a licentious and brutal soldiery. The conflagration of the place lasted four days. The indignation which this event excited throughout Italy compelled Vespasian to use every effort to raise Cremona from its ruins, and reassemble and aid the unfortunate inhabitants.

3. Bedriācum, to the east of the preceding, and between it and Mantua. It is supposed by D'Anville to correspond to the modern Cividale, on the right side of the Ollius, now Oglio. This place was famous for two battles fought near it within a month of each other. In the first Otho was defeated by the generals of Vitellius, and in the second Vitellius by Vespasian. Tacitus and Suetonius call the name of this place Betriacum, and Pliny, Juvenal, and later writers Bebriacum. 4. Mantua, to the northeast of the preceding, situate on an island in the River Mincius, now the Mincio, and still retaining its former name. It is supposed to date its foundation long before the arrival of the Gauls in Italy, and to have been of Tuscan origin. According to a fabulous legend, the place derived its name from the prophetess Manto, the daughter of Tiresias. Its vicinity

to Cremona was an unhappy circumstance for Mantua, since, as the territory of the former city was not found sufficient to contain the veteran soldiers of Augustus, among whom it had been divided, the deficiency was supplied from the lands of Mantua; a loss most feelingly deplored by Virgil, though he was fortunate enough to escape himself from the effects of this oppressive measure. 5. Andes, a village a short distance to the southeast of Mantua. It is celebrated as having been the birthplace of Virgil, and is supposed to be now represented by Pietola, a small place in this quarter. 6. Věrona, to the northeast of Mantua, and situate on the Athesis, now the Adige. It still retains its ancient name. It appears to have belonged originally to the Euganei, and to have been their chief city, and to have been wrested from them by the Cenomani. In this way we may reconcile Pliny, who ascribes its foundation to the Ræti and Euganei, with Livy, who as positively attributes it to the Cenomani. Under the Roman dominion it became a large and flourishing city, and it was also celebrated as having been the birth-place of Catullus, and of Pliny the elder, or the naturalist.

5. Cities among the Anamāni.

1. Veleia, on the right bank of the River Nura, and about eighteen miles south of Placentia, near the present hamlets of Mancinesso and Liveia. 2. Florentia, to the northeast of the preceding, now Fiorenzuola. 3. Fidentia, to the southeast of the preceding, near which Sylla's party gained a victory over Carbo. From the martyrdom of St. Donninus, Fidentia has obtained the name of Borgo San Donnino. 4. Plăcentia, at the confluence of the Trebia and Padus, and now Piacenza. It was colonized by the Romans at the same time with Cremona, to serve as a bulwark against the Gauls, and to oppose the threatened approach of Hannibal. Its utility in this latter respect was fully proved by its affording a secure retreat to the Roman general after the battle of the Ticinus, and more especially after the disaster of the Trebia. Placentia withstood all the efforts of the victorious Hannibal, and also, eleven years after, all the attempts which his brother Hasdrubal made to obtain possession of it. After the termination, however, of the second Punic war, it was taken and burned by the Gauls, headed by Hamilear the Carthaginian, but it was soon after restored by the consul Valerius. Placentia had acquired the rights of a municipium in Cicero's time. Strabo speaks of it as a celebrated town, and Tacitus extols it as a powerful and opulent colony.

6. Cities among the Boii.

- 1. Parma, still retaining its name, situate on the River Parma, to the southeast of Placentia. It was founded by the Etrurians, taken from them by the Boii, and finally conquered and colonized by the Romans. From Cicero, it may be inferred that Parma was attached to the party of Antony, and suffered from the adverse faction in the civil wars. It was probably recolonized under Augustus, as some inscriptions give it the title of Colonia Julia Augusta Parma. From Martial we learn that its wool was highly prized. 2. Tanetum, about eight miles east of Parma. It is mentioned by Polybius and Livy as the place to which L. Manlius, the Roman prætor, retired, after an unsuccessful action with the Boii, at the beginning of the second Punic war. It is now Taneto. 3. Forum Lepidi, or, as it was more commonly called, Regium Lepidum, southeast of Tanetum, and now Reggio. In Cicero we find it sometimes under the name of Regium Lepidi, or simply Regium. probably owes its origin to M. Æmilius Lepidus, who laid down the famous road called Via Æmilia, on which so many of the places we are now considering were situated. But when, or from what cause, it took the surname of Regium, is unknown. It is further noticed in history as having witnessed the death of the elder Brutus, by order of Pompey, to whom he had surrendered himself. In the vicinity was a plain, in which an annual fair of cattle was held; it was known by the name of the Macri Campi.
- 4. Mutina, to the southeast of the preceding, and situate on the Æmilian Way, above referred to. It is now Modena. Mutina was a Roman colony, and is often mentioned in history, and more particularly during the stormy period which intervened between the death of Cæsar and the accession of Augustus. It sustained a severe siege against the troops of Antony, A.U.C. 709. D. Brutus, who defended the place, being apprised of the approach of the consuls Hirtius and Pansa by

means of carrier-pigeons, made an obstinate defence. Antony, being finally defeated by those generals and Octavianus, was forced to raise the siege. Mutina was also famous for its wool. 5. Forum Gallorum, to the southwest of the preceding, on the Æmilian Way, and rendered remarkable by some important actions which were fought there during the siege of Mutina. It is now Castel Franco. 6. Bononia, to the southeast of the preceding, on the same Roman road, and now Bologna. was of Tuscan origin, and existed under the name of Felsina prior to the invasion of the Boii. It appears to have been the principal seat of the Etrurians to the north of the Apennines. Bononia received a Roman colony, A.U.C. 653, B.C. 100. Frequent mention is made of this city in the civil wars. As it had suffered considerably during this period, it was restored and aggrandized by Augustus after the battle of Actium, and continued to rank high among the great cities of Italy. 7. Förum Cornelii, to the southeast, founded by Sylla, and now Imola. 8. Făventia, ten miles further on the same road, and now Faenza. It was situate between the rivers Sinnus and Anemo, now the Senno and Amone, and was noted in the history of the civil wars for the defeat of Carbo's party by that of Sylla. 9. Cæsēna, the last town of Cisalpine Gaul on the Æmilian Way, and situate close to the River Sapis, now the Savio. It retains its ancient name.

There are only a few places noticed by ancient writers to the right or left of the Æmilian Way. Among the former we may point out, 1. Brixellum, northeast of Parma, and now Bresello. It was a Roman colony, and was rendered remarkable by the death of Otho after his defeat at Bedriacum. 2. Nucĕria, ten miles to the northeast of the preceding, and now Luzzara. Among the places on the left of the Æmilian Way, we may mention, 1. Förum Növum, about ten miles to the southwest of Parma, and near the source of the Tarus, now the Taro. Its modern name is Fornovo. An old inscription gives it the title of a municipium. 2. Aquinum, south of Mutina, now Acquario. In the vicinity of this place was the vast forest called Litana Silva, extending along the base of the Apennines, from the sources of the Scultenna, now the Panaro, to those of the Secia or Gabellus, now the Secchio. In this forest a Roman army was destroyed by the Gauls.

7. Cities among the Lingones.

1. Ravenna, on the coast, a short distance below the Spinetic mouth of the Po. It was a place of very early origin, founded, according to Strabo, by some Thessalians, by whom probably are meant Pelasgi. This place was situate in the midst of marshes, and built entirely on piles, and a communication was established between the different parts of the town by means of bridges and boats. The noxious air, however, arising from the marshes was so purified by the tide, that Ravenna was considered by the Romans a very healthy place, in proof of which they sent gladiators thither to be trained and exercised. Ravenna became the great naval station of the Romans on the Adriatic, and continued to flourish as such long after the reign of Augustus, and after the fall of the western empire it became the seat of a separate government, called the exarchate of Ravenna. It was badly supplied, however, with water. modern name is the same as the ancient. The old port was situate at the mouth of the River Beděsis, now the Ronco; but Augustus caused a new one to be constructed at the entrance of the little river Candianus into the sea, about three miles from the city. The new harbor thenceforth became the station for the fleet, and received the name of Portus Classis, an appellation traces of which still subsist in that of the Basilica of Sant' Apollinare in Classe. 2. Spina, near the entrance of the Spinetic mouth of the Po into the Adriatic, and from which this mouth derived its name. It was a very ancient, and at one time very flourishing city, and very powerful at sea. place appears to have been of Pelasgic origin. Its inhabitants were finally overpowered by the neighboring barbarians, and compelled to leave it. In Strabo's time it was a mere village. Spina is supposed to have stood not far from the present village of Argenta, and on the left bank of the Po di Primaro. 3. Förum Alliëni, to the northwest, supposed to have occupied the site of the present Ferrara, this modern name being thought to be a corruption from Forum Allieni, contracted to Forum Arrii.

3. VENETIA, INCLUDING THE CARNI AND HISTRIA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Vēnētia took its name from the Venēti, its inhabitants, who appear to have been a branch of the great Sclavonic race, and to have been connected with the Venedi of the north of Europe, a supposition rendered extremely probable by their having the amber trade among them, since this trade may be taken as a proof of a communication between them and the natives trading in amber on the shores of the Baltic.

II. It was bounded on the north by the territory of the Euganei and by Ratia; on the west and south by Gallia Cisalpina; on the east by the Mare Hadriaticum; while on the northeast, the River Tilavemptus, now the Tagliamento, separated it from the Carni.

III. On the invasion of Italy in the fifth century by the Huns and their king Attila, and the general desolation that every where ensued, great numbers of the people who lived near the Adriatic took shelter in the islands in this quarter, where now stands the city of *Venice*. The arrival of fresh hordes of barbarians in Italy increased their population, until a commercial state was formed, which gradually rose to power and opulence.

Obs. There was a popular belief among the ancients, adopted by the poets, that the Veneti were sprung from a colony of $Hen\breve{e}ti$, a people of Paphlagonia in Asia Minor, enumerated by Homer among the allies of Priam. The forces sent by that people to the aid of the Trojan monarch are said to have followed Antenor, at the close of the war, over into Europe, and in the course of their wanderings to have arrived at the head of the Adriatic, where they finally settled, after having expelled the Euganei, the original inhabitants of the country. The fable probably arose from some accidental resemblance between the name of the Homeric Antenor and that of the chieftain who led the Veneti into this quarter.

IV. The Carni were situated to the northeast of the Veneti, and were an Alpine race. They occupied a considerable extent of territory, and their existence is still to be traced in the modern appellation of Carniola. Their name itself is undoubtedly of Celtie origin, and refers to their having been originally occupants of rugged and mountainous regions. (Compare page 159, 6.)

V. The country of *Histria*, now *Istria*, was originally a part of Illyricum. Little is known respecting the origin of the people; but an early geographer, Scymnus of Chios, describes them

as a nation of Thracian race. They were in all probability, however, of Illyrian origin. This country was subjugated by the Romans, B.C. 178. Augustus subsequently included it within the limits of Italy, and the little river *Arsia*, now the *Arsa*, henceforth became the boundary.

Obs. The Greeks, in their fanciful mythology, derived the name of Histria from the Hister or Ister, now the Danube. They conveyed the Argonauts from the Euxine into the Ister, and then, by an unheard-of communication between this river and the Adriatic, launched their heroes into the waters of the latter. They made, also, a band of Colchians, sent in pursuit of Jason and Medea, to have settled in Histria after a fruitless search. This strange error no longer prevailed in Strabo's time, when Histria had become known to the Romans, and formed part of their empire.

(B.) CITIES OF VENETIA.

1. Hadria or Hatria, in the southeastern angle of the country, near the River Tartarus, now Tartaro, and not far from its mouth. According to the earliest accounts it was near the shores of a bay, but in the subsequent alterations of this part of the coast, the bay, if it ever existed, has long been filled up. Hadria was a place of very ancient origin, and must have been at one time powerful and great, since it was enabled to transmit its name to the sea on which it stood. It still existed when Strabo wrote, but as an insignificant place. At present it is a small town, still bearing the name of Hadria or Adria, and upward of eighteen miles distant from the coast. 2. Pătăvium. to the northwest of the preceding, between the Meduacus Major and Minor, but nearer the latter. It is now Padua, in Italian Padova. This city, from its celebrity and importance, may be regarded as the capital of Venetia. It was fabled to have been founded by Antenor and his followers, the Heněti, to whom we have already referred. Strabo speaks of Patavium as the greatest and most flourishing city in the north of Italy, and states that it counted in his time five hundred Roman knights among its citizens, and could at one period send twenty thousand men into the field. Its manufactures of cloth and woollen stuffs were renowned throughout Italy. This city was the birth-place of the historian Livy, and also of Thrasea Pætus, who was put to death by Nero. 3. Altīnum, now Altino, to the northeast of the preceding, on the River Silis, now the Sile, near its mouth. It was celebrated for its wool, and seems in other respects, also, to have been a place of note, since

Martial compares the appearance of its shores, lined with villas, to that of Baiæ. L. Antoninus Verus, the emperor, died here of apoplexy. 4. Concordia, to the northeast, and still retaining its ancient name. Beyond this place is the River Tilavemptus, now the Tagliamento, which separated the territories of the Veneti from those of the Carni.

Retracing our steps toward the southern borders of Venetia, in order to examine the interior and remaining part of the country, we come to, 1. Ateste, to the north of the Athesis, and on the River Eretēnus, now the Retone. It is now Este, a name well known in modern history as the title of one of the most ancient and illustrious families in Europe. 2. Vicentia, to the northwest, sometimes called Vicetia, and now Vicenza. Tacitus speaks of it as a municipium.

(C.) CITIES OF THE CARNI.

1. Aquileia, a celebrated city, between the Alsa, now Ausa, and the Natiso, now Natisone, and about seven miles from the sea. It was of Gallic origin, but was soon taken possession of by the Romans, and made a Latin colony. Polybius speaks of valuable gold mines in its neighborhood; and Eustathius derives the name from the Latin aquila," an eagle," the legionary standard of the Romans who were first stationed there. Aquileia soon became the chief bulwark of Italy on its northeastern frontier. In Strabo's time it was the great emporium of all the trade of Italy with the nations of Illyria and Pannonia; these were furnished with wine, oil, and salt provisions in exchange for slaves, cattle, and hides. It was sacked and razed to the ground by Attila. The modern city of Aquileia stands near the ruins of the ancient place. 2. Tergeste, to the east of the preceding, and now Trieste. It gave name to the Sinus Tergestinus, now Gulf of Trieste. It suffered severely, on one occasion, from an invasion of the Illyrian Iapydes, whom Augustus had some difficulty in subduing. 3. Förum Julii, to the northeast, now Friuli. It is said to have been founded by Julius Cæsar, and became a place of importance. It must not be confounded with Forum Julii, now Frejus, in Gallia Narbonensis. 4. Julium Carnicum, on the northwestern confines of the Carni, and a place of great importance, having been founded, probably by Julius Cæsar, to guard the frontier against the depredations of the Gauls and Illyrians. It is now Zuglio.

(D.) CITIES OF HISTRIA.

1. Ægida, at the mouth of the River Formio, now the Risano, in a small island named Ægidis. It was subsequently Justinopolis, and is now Capo d'Istria. 2. Părentium, to the south, with a sea-port. It is now Parenzo. 3. Pola, to the south, and near the Promontorium Polaticum. It still retains its ancient name. Pola was a city of very early origin, and became eventually a Roman colony, when it took the name of Pietas Julia. From the splendid remains of antiquity which are yet to be seen here, it is evident that it was a city of no little note. The amphitheatre is still in a very perfect state of preservation, and is scarcely exceeded in magnificence by the Coliseum at Rome. Off the promontory, in a southeast direction, are certain islands called Absyrtides, as tradition reported, from Absyrtus, the brother of Medea. The principal one was named Absorus, and had a town likewise called so. These islands, four in number, are known in modern geography as Cherso, Osero, Ferosina, and Chao.

4. ETRURIA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. The Romans called this country Etruria or Tuscia; the Greeks, Τυβρηνία οτ Τυρσηνία.

II. In the age of their greatness, the Tuscans, having subdued the ancient Tyrrhenians and the Umbrians, dwelt not only in Etruria proper, but also in the country about the Po; and they had even carried their conquests as far as Campania in central Italy.

III. Etruria, however, considered as a Roman province, was bounded on the north by Liguria and Gallia Cisalpina, being separated from the former by the River *Macra*, now the *Magra*, and from the latter by the Apennines; on the east by *Umbria*, the boundary line being formed by the Apennines and the Tiber; on the west and southwest by the *Mare Inferum*; and on the southeast by the country of the *Sabines* and by *Latium*.

Obs. 1. The probable origin of the Etrurian nation has already been given (page 249, seq.). The Etrurians or Tuscans appear to have been a race coming in from the north, and to have conquered the Tyrrhenian Pelasgians, the previous possessors of the country. The idea of a Lydian immigration into Italy, though a favorite one with the ancient writers, and though advocated by many modern scholars, is now regarded as untenable.

2. In speaking of this nation, the terms Etrurian and Tuscan are indiscriminately used. In the age of Cato, the country was commonly called Etruria, and the people themselves Tusci. In later times, Etrusci grew to be more usual in books. The old name, however, must have continued the prevalent one in the mouth of the people. Hence, under the later emperors, arose the name of Tuscia for the country, which till then had not been used in writing; and hence, since the Middle Ages, we have Toscana, and, for the people themselves, Toscani. The terms Etruria and Etrusci presuppose the simple form Etruri; and this we may hold to be the name by which the Italians originally designated the conquerors of the Tyrrhenians, although the name both of Tuscans and Etruscans was no less foreign to the people than that of Tyrrhenians. They called themselves, as already remarked, Rasena. The name Tyrrhenian arose from the Greeks' confounding the conquered race with their conquerors. (Niebuhr, Rom. Hist., vol. i., p. 112, Cambr. transl.)

(B.) HISTORICAL SKETCH OF ETRURIA.

I. Had the Tuscans formed a regular and effective plan for securing their conquests and strengthening their confederacies, they would have been the masters of Italy, and perhaps of the world, instead of the Romans. But their enterprises, after a certain period, seem to have been desultory, and their measures ill combined and ineffectual. A fatal want of internal union, which prevailed among their states, rendered them an easy prey to their Gallic invaders in the north of Italy, and to the hardy Samnites in Campania, while Rome was aiming at the very centre of their power and existence those persevering and systematic attacks, which, with her, were never known to fail.

II. Etruria was standing at the summit of her greatness about the end of the third century of Rome. In the next she lost the whole country beyond the Apennines, with Veii and Capena. A great part of the fifth century was spent in an irresolute struggle, which Volsinii alone maintained with any fortitude, against the prevailing destiny of Rome.

III. After this the nation enjoyed two centuries of inglorious repose. Even during the second Punic war, her prosperity was so far restored that Arretium of itself was able to support Scipio's African expedition with arms and corn for the whole army, and with pay for the crew of a fleet. In this state of ease they felt no desire for the Roman franchise, which bound such as shared it to the performance of hard duties. When they received it, however, they displayed no less courage than the Marsians and Samnites in maintaining its full honor. But fortune dealt hardly with them, and, after the final success of Sylla's party, many of their cities were razed to the ground for having sided with Marius.

IV, The form of government in Etruria, prior to its subjugation by the Romans, was the aristocratic. The ruling class formed both an aristocracy and priesthood, and effectually prevented the mind of the nation from expanding itself in its natural growth. The great body of the people appear to have formed a class of clients or dependents on the ruling caste.

V. Wherever the Etrurians settled we find them to have erected twelve confederate cities, which were, in fact, so many aristocratic republics, having a magistrate presiding over each termed *Lucumo*. Thus we have twelve confederate cities in Etruria proper, twelve in the northern Etrurian territory around the Po, and twelve, again, in Campanian Etruria. Niebuhr, Müller, and other modern scholars have endeavored to determine what these cities were, but only with partial success. In Etruria around the Po, many of these cities

seem to have been utterly destroyed at the irruption of the Gauls. Of those in Etruria proper, Niebuhr gives the following ten: 1. Care or Agylla; 2. Tarquinii; 3. Populonium; 4. Volaterra; 5. Arretium; 6. Perusia; 7. Clusium; 8. Rusella; 9. Veii; 10. Volsinii. The two that are wanting can not be fixed with any certainty. Capēna, Cosa, and Fasūla may appear to have a claim.

(C.) CITIES OF ETRURIA.

Beginning from the Macra, we come to, 1. Luna, on the coast, celebrated for its beautiful and capacious harbor (now the Gulf of Spezzia) as early as the days of Ennius. Before the new division under Augustus, Luna had formed part of Liguria. It was also famous for its white marbles, which now take their name from the neighboring town of Carrara. Pliny speaks of the wine and cheese made in its vicinity; the latter were sometimes so large as to weigh one thousand pounds. The ruins of the place now bear the name of Luni. 2. Lucus Feronia, to the southeast, at first merely a place sacred to the worship of Feronia, but afterward raised to the dignity of a colonial town. 3. Lūca, now called Lucca, to the southeast, on the River Ausar, now the Serchio. To this place Tiberius Gracehus retired after the unfortunate campaign on the Trebia; and Cæsar frequently made his head-quarters here during his command in the two Gauls. 4. Pisæ or Pisa, as it is sometimes written, to the southwest, and still retaining its situation and name, Pisa, as a modern city of great celebrity. We learn from Strabo that anciently it stood at the junction of the Ausar and Arnus, but now they flow into the sea by separate channels. Pisa was fabled to have been founded by some of the followers of Nestor in their wanderings after the fall of Troy. Its harbor was much frequented by the Romans in their communication with Sardinia, Gaul, and Spain. In Strabo's time it was still a very flourishing commercial place, from the supplies of timber which it furnished to the fleets, and the costly marbles which the neighboring quarries afforded.

Diverging now into the interior, we come to, 1. Pistoria or Pistorium, to the northeast of Luca, and at the foot of the Apennines. It is now Pistoia. In the vicinity of this place Catiline was defeated and slain by the forces of the republic. 2. Fæsūlæ, about twenty-five miles to the southeast of the preceding, now Fiesole. Catiline made this the chief hold of his party in Etruria. It was still a flourishing city in the time of

Pliny; at present a small village marks its site. 3. Florentia, a short distance to the southwest, on the Arnus, now Florence (in Italian, Firenze). Although so celebrated in modern times as the capital of Tuscany, it has no pretensions to a foundation of great antiquity, as we find no mention made of it before the time of Cæsar, by whom, as Frontinus informs us, it was colonized, unless we make Fluentia identical with it, which is mentioned by Florus as having suffered severely, along with many other cities, in the civil wars of Sylla and Marius.

Returning to the coast, we come to, 1. Portus Hercülis Liburni or Labronis, now Leghorn (in Italian, Livorno). 2. Vada Volăterrana, about eighteen miles further on. It was the harbor of Volaterra, and was situate at the mouth of the River Cæcina, which still retains its name. The modern name of the place is Vada. 3. Volăterræ, fifteen miles inland, and on the right bank of the River Cæcina. Its Etrurian name, as it appears on numerous coins, was Velathri. The modern name is Volterra. This was one of the twelve principal cities of Etruria, and its massive remains at the present day bear full testimony to its ancient splendor and importance. 4. Sēna Julia, to the east of Volaterræ, and now well known as Sienna. The more ancient name was Sena, to which Julia was subsequently added, to distinguish it from Sena Gallica in Umbria. designation Julia implies a colony founded by Julius or Augustus Cæsar. 5. Vetūlonii, to the southwest of the preceding, and one of the most powerful and distinguished of the twelve great cities of Etruria. D'Anville errs in placing it on the coast, since Strabo expressly says that Populonium was the only one of the Etrurian cities that was close to the sea. A more careful examination of the vicinity has proved that the ruins of Vetulonii exist in a forest still called Selva di Vetleta.

6. Popūlonium, to the west of the preceding, and on the coast, being the only one of the Etrurian cities that was close to the sea. In other instances the Etrurians were prevented from founding any large cities immediately on the coast, both by the want of commodious harbors, and their fear of pirates. Populonium, however, possessed great advantages in this respect, since it was both secure and of great extent, and from its proximity to the island of Ilva, now Elba, so rich in metals, of the highest importance; since the produce of the

mines seems never to have been prepared for use in the island itself, but to have been always sent over to Populonium for that purpose. The city itself was placed on a lofty cliff, that ran out into the sea, and formed the Promontorium Populonium; the harbor was at the bottom of the cliff, and here, too, was the naval arsenal of the Etrurians. The Etrurian name of the city, as appears from numerous coins, was Pupluna. During the civil wars of Marius and Sylla, Populonium sustained a siege about the same time with Volaterræ, in which it suffered so much that nothing but the temples and a few houses were preserved. Its ruins are about three miles north of Piombino. 7. Rusella, to the southeast of the preceding, and one of the twelve great cities. Some remarkable ruins, with the name of Roselle, point to its site. It is mentioned more than once by Livy in the course of the wars with Etruria. In the second Punic war we read of its furnishing timber, especially fir, for the Roman fleets. Near it was the Lacus Prilis, already mentioned (page 264), and also the River Umbro, now Ombrone, whose name Pliny regards as indicative of the Umbrians having once been in possession of Etruria.

8. Portus Telămo, below the River Umbro, and a place of great antiquity, since its foundation was even fabulously ascribed to the Argonauts. It was probably a Pelasgic city. The modern name is Telamone. The country between Telamo and the Lake Prilis was memorable for the defeat of a body of invading Gauls by the Romans under the consuls C. Atilius and Paulus Æmilius. This battle, which was fought seven years before the commencement of the second Punic war, is commonly called the battle of Telamo, but the scene of action was nearer the Lake Prilis, and on the right bank of the Umbro. 9. Cosa, called, also, Cossa and Cossa, to the southeast, on a peninsula, in the midst of which rose the Mons Argentarius. The peninsula formed two bays; the one on the north answers to the modern Stagno d'Orbitello, and in it the tunny fishery was carried on. Hence the name given to the harbor on this side, Portus ad Cetarias. The bay on the other side formed the Portus Cossanus, called, also, Portus Herculis, and now Porto d'Ercole. Cosa was a very ancient Etrurian city, and founded, according to Pliny, by the Volcientes. It was remarkable for its fidelity to the Romans during the second Punic war, and we hear of it frequently in the naval history of Rome as one of the principal stations for her fleets on the lower sea. It is supposed to have been destroyed by the Goths under Alaric. Its ruins are at a little distance from the modern town of *Ansedonia*, which is now itself in ruins.

10. Gravisca, southeast of the preceding, and a sea-port. appears to have been a town of some note, and probably served as a harbor to the city of Tarquinii. The low and marshy situation in which it was built seems to have rendered this town always unhealthy. It occupied probably the site of the Torre di Corneto, not Corneto itself, which is too far inland. 11. Tarquinii, some distance inland, in a northeast direction from Graviscæ, and on the left bank of the Marta. This was one of the most powerful cities of Etruria, and celebrated in history for its early connection with Rome, since from it the Tarquin family came to that capital. The foundation of this city is ascribed by Strabo to Tarchon, the famous Etrurian chief, who is so often introduced by the poets. Tarquinii was foremost among the cities of Etruria to assist Tarquinius Superbus in re-establishing himself at Rome. Its wars with that city and final subjugation are related by Livy. At a later period it became a colony and municipium. The country around was, as it still is, productive in flax, and hence we read of this city's having furnished sails for the Roman fleet. The Tuscan name was probably Tarcuna. The site of the place is still indicated by some ruins near Corneto, still called Turchina. 12. Centum Cella, to the south, now Civita Vecchia. This place, which obtained its name from a large number of hamlets that were scattered around, first assumed importance when Trajan caused a magnificent harbor to be constructed here, which Pliny the younger has described in one of his letters. Two immense piers formed the port, which was semicircular, while an island, constructed artificially of immense masses of rock, brought there by vessels and sunk in the sea, served as a break-water in front. and supported a pharos. The coast being very destitute of shelter for vessels of burden, this work of Trajan's was a great national benefit, and hence the place was better known by the name of Trajani Portus. Centum Cellæ having been destroyed by the Saracens, the inhabitants built another town some distance inland; but afterward they reoccupied the site of "the

old city," which from that circumstance obtained its present name.

13. Pyrgi or Pyrgos, to the southeast, a place of great antiquity, and, as its name imports, of Grecian, that is, Pelasgic origin. This city contained a temple of the goddess Lucina, celebrated for its riches until plundered by Dionysius of Syracuse, not long after the capture of Rome by the Gauls. modern town of Santa Severa occupies its place. 14. Care. a short distance to the northeast of the preceding, and called by the Greek writers Agylla ("Αγυλλα). It was one of the most considerable cities of Etruria, and enjoyed a great reputation for justice among the Greeks; for, though very powerful and able to send out fleets and armies, it always abstained from piracy, to which the other Etrurian cities were so much addicted. When Rome was taken by the Gauls, the inhabitants of Cære rendered that city an important service by receiving their priests and vestals, and by defeating the Gauls on their return through the Sabine country, on which occasion they are said to have recovered the gold with which Rome had purchased its liberation. In return for this, the Romans declared the Cærites public guests of Rome, and admitted them to a portion of the rights enjoyed by her citizens. In Strabo's time this celebrated city was reduced to insignificance, being less frequented than the mineral waters (Aqua Carētāna, now Bagni di Sasso) in its vicinity. The remains of Cære are still to be traced about four miles from the sea, on a spot now known by the name of Cerveteri. 15. Lorium, to the southeast, a small place, answering now to Castel Guido. In a villa here Antoninus Pius was brought up, and here, also, he died. 16. Portus Augusti. An account of this will be given when we come to speak of Ostia in Latium.

In order to describe what remains of Etruria, we will now proceed to the northeast portion of that province, situated near the sources of the *Arnus*, and will then examine the interior of the country. Pursuing this course, we come to, 1. *Arrētium*, now *Arezzo*, a town of considerable celebrity, and generally considered as one of the principal states of Etruria. It became a place of great importance to the Romans, as a defence against the incursions of the Cisalpine Gauls, and we also find the consul Flaminius posted there to defend the entrance of Etruria

against Hannibal. Cæsar did not neglect to make himself master of this important place when he had seized upon Ariminum, but sent Antony with five cohorts to occupy it. Arretium was much celebrated for its terra cotta vases, which Pliny ranks with those of Samos and Saguntum. Besides the Arretium which we are here considering, and which for that reason was sometimes called Arretium Vetus, there were two other Roman colonies of the same name in this quarter, distinguished as Arretium Julium and Arretium Fidens. The former of these answers to the modern Subliano, the latter to Castigli-2. Cortona, about fourteen miles south of Arretium. This was one of the most ancient cities of Italy, and of Pelasgic origin, as is plainly shown by the massy remains of its ancient walls. It was fabled by some to have been founded by Corythus, father of Dardanus, and hence is called by Virgil the city of Corythus. It was subsequently colonized by the Romans. The modern name is the same as the ancient. 3. Perŭsia, somewhat to the southeast of the Lacus Trasymenus, and on the site of the modern city of Perugia. This place was scarcely inferior in antiquity to Cortona, and equal to it in dignity and rank among the confederated cities of Etruria. It was also of Pelasgic origin. Perusia became a Roman colony about B.C. 44, and some years after sustained a memorable siege, in which Antony held out against Octavianus Cæsar, but was at length forced by famine to surrender. On this occasion many of the Perusians were put to death, and the city was aceidentally burned; a madman having set fire to his own house, a general conflagration ensued. Perusia, however, appears to have risen from its ruins, and under the Emperor Justinian we find it maintaining a successful siege against the Goths.

4. Clusium, to the west of Perusia, and nearly on a line with it, now Chiusi. This was the capital of Porsena, the early enemy of Rome. Its first name is said to have been Camers, and it appears to have belonged originally to the Umbrian Camertes, from whom it was taken by the Tuscans. The siege of Clusium by the Gauls, and the provocation which they received from the Roman ambassadors, led to the capture of Rome itself. It was near this place that Porsena erected for himself the splendid mausoleum, of which Pliny has transmitted to us a description on the authority of Varro, but which

bears no small appearance of fiction, since, had so stupendous a work actually existed, some traces of it would have remained, not merely in Pliny's day, but even in the present age. makes a distinction between Clusium Vetus and Novum. A village named Chiusi, at the foot of the Apennines, north of Arretium, is supposed to represent the latter. 5. Volsinii or Volsinium, on the northern shore of the Lacus Volsiniensis, and now Bolsena, ranked among the cities of Etruria. sequently became so enervated by its wealth and luxury as to allow its slaves to overthrow the constitution, and give way to the most unbridled licentiousness and excess, till at last the citizens were forced to seek protection from Rome. The rebels were then speedily reduced and brought to condign punishment. As a proof of the ancient prosperity of Volsinii, it is stated by Pliny that it possessed, when taken by the Romans, no less than two thousand statues. From Livy we learn that the Etruscan goddess Nortia was worshipped here, and that it was customary to mark the years by fixing nails in her temple. Volsinii at a later period was noted as the birth-place of Sejanus.

6. Volci, an ancient city, which appears to have stood between the preceding and Tarquinii. Its site is still known by the name of Piano di Volci. The inhabitants are called Volcientes. 7. Fānum Voltumnæ, to the southeast of Volsinii, and celebrated as the spot where the general assembly of the Etrurian nation was held on solemn occasions. 8. Trossulum, a little to the southeast, of which some remains have been discovered at a place which bears the name of Trosso. Pliny tells us that this town having been taken by cavalry alone, the Roman horse from that circumstance obtained the name of Trossuli. 9. Fescennium, east of the Lacus Ciminus, and near the Tiber, and occupying the site of the modern Galese. It is noted in the annals of Roman poetry for the nuptial songs called Carmina Fescennina, to which, according to Festus, it gave its name. 10. Falĕrium, or, as it is more generally called, Falĕrii, to the southwest of the preceding, and the capital of the ancient Falisci. It appears to have occupied the position of the present Civita Castellana. The wars of the Falisci with Rome are chiefly detailed in the fifth book of Livy, where the celebrated story of Camillus and the schoolmaster of Falerii occurs. It was not, however, till the third year after the first Punic war that this people were finally reduced. The waters of the Faliscan territory were supposed, like those of the Clitumnus, to have the peculiar property of communicating a white color to cattle. 11. Capēna, to the southeast of Mons Soracte, and often mentioned in the early annals of Rome. It stood at a place now called Civitucula.

12. Veii, to the east of Cære, and eleven miles from Rome, to which it was at one time a formidable rival. It sustained many long wars against the Romans, and was at last taken by Camillus after a siege of ten years. Its opulence is attested by the account which historians have given of the booty that Camillus obtained for his army at its fall. In fertility of soil and extent of territory, Veii had greatly the advantage over its rival. After the capture of Rome by the Gauls, an effort was made to transfer the seat of Roman power to Veii. It failed. and from this time we scarcely hear of the latter city. Veii became a Roman colony under Julius Cæsar, who divided its lands among his soldiers; but in the civil wars which ensued after his death, it was nearly destroyed, and left in a most desolate state. It rose, however, from its ruins, and was raised to municipal rank, probably under Tiberius; and we find it existing even under the Emperors Constantine and Theodosian. Its site answers to the spot now called l'Isola Farnese.

ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF ETRURIA.

1. Urgos, called by Rutilius Gorgon, and lying in a south-west direction from Portus Herculis Liburni or Leghorn. It is now Gorgona. 2. Mænaria, near the preceding, now Meloria.

3. Ilva, now Elba, called by the Greeks Æthālia, distant about ten miles from Populonium, the nearest point of the Tuscan coast. Ilva was early celebrated for its rich iron mines, but by whom they were first discovered and worked is uncertain, as they are said to exhibit the marks of labors carried on for an incalculable time. It is probable, however, that the Phœnicians were the first to make known the mineral riches of this island, and that it was from them the Pelasgic Tyrrheni learned to estimate its value, which may have held out to them no small inducement for settling on a coast otherwise deficient in natural advantages. It is to this latter people that we may trace the name of Æthalia, since it appears that Lemnos,

which they once inhabited, bore, according to the testimony of Polybius, the same appellation in more ancient times. The *Portus Argōus*, in this island, fabled to have derived its name from the expedition of the Argonauts, is now *Porto Feraio*.

4. Plānāsia, a small island between Ilva and Corsica, called Planasia by Varro, and Plānāria by Pliny. It is now Pianosa. Tacitus relates that Augustus banished to this island his nephew Agrippa, and that the young prince was put to death here on the accession of Tiberius. 5. Caprāria, northwest of Ilva, and now Capraia. It derived its name from the goats (capræ) with which it abounded. Hence, also, the Greeks called it Ægĭlon (Alγιλών, from alξ). 6. Igilium, opposite the harbor of Cosa, and now Giglio. Close to it lay another small island, called Diānium or Artēmĭsium, now Gianuti.

5. UMBRIA AND PICENUM.

UMBRIA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Umbria takes its name from the Umbri, its inhabitants, who were called by the Greeks $O\mu\ell\rho\nu\kappa oi$, a word which this latter people supposed to be derived from $\delta\mu\ell\rho\rho\varsigma$, "a rain-storm," under the singular idea that they were a people saved from a universal deluge.

II. It is certain, however, that the Umbrians were originally a great and powerful nation, and they are regarded by some of the ancients as the earliest inhabitants of the country. Their territory at first, too, was very extensive, embracing probably not only what afterward was called *Umbria*, but also the southern part of Etruria, and the district occupied by the Sabines between the Apennines and the Tiber; while, on the northeast slope of the Apennines, toward the upper sea and the Po, they are said to have spread as conquerors, to have expelled the Liburnians and the Siculi from the coast, and to have maintained an obstinate contest with the Tuscans for the territory on the lower Po.

III. But Umbria, in the sense in which we are here to consider it, that is, under the limits which were assigned to it in the reign of Augustus, was very different from all this, and was bounded as follows: On the north by the Rubicon, which separated it from Gallia Cisalpina; on the east by the Adri-

atic and Picenum; on the west by the Apennines and Tiber, dividing it from Etruria: and on the south by the country of the Sabines.

(B.) SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF UMBRIA.

I. THE Umbri come into collision with the Etruscans, who defeat them, and take three hundred of their towns.

II. Not long after this a new foe appears, equally formidable to both the conquerors and the conquered, namely, the Galli Sĕnŏnes, the same who afterward took Rome. The Tuscans are vanquished and driven from the country around the Po, while the Umbri also feel the force of the invasion, and are driven from the shores of the Adriatic into the mountains. The Senones take possession of the coast.

III. The decisive struggle between the Etruscans and Romans now takes place, and we find the *Camertes Umbri*, a tribe on the borders of Etruria, offering to assist the Romans in their attack upon their Etruscan neighbors. It is worthy of remark, that the emissary sent by the Romans, and who is acquainted with the Etruscan language, is enabled thereby to converse with the *Camertes Umbri*, and to enter into negotiations with them.

IV. After the overthrow of the Etruscans, the Umbri make, when it is too late, an effort to check the advance of the conquering Romans. The consul Decius, who has advanced into Etruria, retraces his steps to oppose the new enemy, and the other consul Fabius, who has been fighting against the Samnites, is ordered by the senate to march round against the Umbri, who are assembled at Mevania.

V. This joint movement damps the spirit of the Umbri, and their forces disperse to their several strongholds. Only one tribe, called *Materina*, keeps the field, and attacks the camp of Fabius, but are defeated, B.C. 307. In a short time most of the communities of Umbri submit to Rome without much resistance; Sarsīna, however, is one of the last to yield. The Senones are totally extirpated about twenty-five years afterward, and Umbria again reaches to the sea.

(C.) CITIES OF UMBRIA.

Advancing from the Rubicon along the coast, we come to, 1. Ariminum, now Rimini, situate between the rivers Ariminus and Aprūsa, now the Marecchia and Ausa, and the former of which is said to have given name to the city. After the expulsion of the Senones, Ariminum, originally an Umbrian city, received a Roman colony. From this period it was considered a most important place, and the key of Italy on the eastern coast; and hence we generally find a Roman army stationed there during the Gallic and Punic wars. How much importance Cæsar attached to the possession of this place is shown by his seizing it immediately after crossing the Rubicon. That it continued to flourish under Augustus is evident from the remains of several great works erected there during the reign of that emperor. 2. Pisaurum, now Pesaro, to the southeast, at

the mouth of the River Pisaurus, now the Foglia. It became a Roman colony B.C. 185, and it appears to have been colonized again either by Julius or Augustus Cæsar, since inscriptions give it the title of Colonia Julia. The climate of this place appears from Catullus to have been in bad repute. 3. Sēna Gallica, now Sinigaglia, on the right bank of the River Misus, now the Nigola. The surname Gallica was added to distinguish this place from the Etruscan Sena. It was colonized by the Romans after they had expelled, or, rather, exterminated the Senones. During the civil wars of Marius and Sylla, Sena, which sided with Marius, was taken and sacked by Pompey.

We must now return to the north of Umbria, in order to describe the interior of the province. Advancing, then, from this point, we come to, 1. Sarsina, on the left bank of the Sapis, now the Savio, and which still retains its ancient name. It was the birth-place of Plautus, the comic writer. Sarsina must have been at one time a place of note, since it gave name to a numerous Umbrian tribe. From ancient inscriptions we learn that it was a municipium. The Sapinian tribe seem to have occupied the mountainous district near the source of the river whence they derived their appellation, and to have dwelt not far from Sarsina. Some vestige of the ancient name may still be traced in that of a place now called Sapigno. 2. Pitinum Pisaurense, to the southeast, so called from its situation on the River Pisaurus. It is now probably Piagnino. 3. Urbinum Metaurense, to the southeast, now Urbania, and on the right bank of the River Metaurus, whence it derived the latter part of its name. 4. Urbinum Hortense, to the northeast, on the opposite bank of the same river, now Urbino, the capital of a duchy of the same name. Here Valens, general of Vitellius, was put to death. In the mountains to the south of this place is the defile anciently called Petra Pertusa or Intercisa, now il Furlo or Sasso Forato, from its being cut through the rock which here closes in to the edge of the River Cantiano. This work must doubtless be referred to the construction of the Flaminian Way. 5. Förum Semprönii, nearer the sea, and on the left bank of the Metaurus. It answers to the modern Fossombrone. The battle between Hasdrubal and the Roman generals must have taken place here, according to the best opinions. A hill between Fossombrone and the pass of Furlo is still called Monte d'Asdrubale.

6. Sentinum, to the southwest, and nearer the Apennines, now Sentina. It was celebrated for the battle fought in its vicinity between the Romans and the Gauls leagued with the Samnites, B.C. 295, in which the consul Decius so nobly devoted himself for his country. Sentinum is also noted for having held out against the second triumvirate. 7. Camerīnum, to the southeast, on the borders of Picenum, and now Camerino. This place must not be confounded with the Camerte of Strabo, to which we will presently come.

We must now turn to that part of Umbria which lies to the west of the central chain of the Apennines. Beginning with the sources of the Tiber, we come to, 1. Tifernum Tiberinum, so called because near the sources of that stream. It was situate on the left bank, and answers to the modern Città di Castello. Tifernum is chiefly known from the circumstance of its being situated near the villa of the younger Pliny. 2. Iguvium, to the south of Tifernum, and at the foot of the main chain of the Apennines. It is now Eugubbio, or more commonly Gubbio, and was a municipium. This city has acquired great celebrity in modern times from the discovery, in its vicinity, A.D. 1440, of several bronze tablets covered with inscriptions, some of which are in Umbrian, others in Latin characters. To the northeast of this place was the temple of Jupiter Apenninus, to which the Umbrians resorted to sacrifice, as the Etruscans did to the temple of Voltumna, and the Latins to the Alban Mount. Some vestiges of this temple are still to be seen on Monte Sant' Ubaldo. 3. Nuceria, to the southeast of the preceding, now Nocera. It is noticed by Strabo for its manufacture of wooden vessels. 4. Mevānia, to the southwest of the preceding, now Bevagna. This place was famous for its wide-extended plains and rich pastures. Here Vitellius took post, as if determined to make a last stand for the empire against Vespasian, but soon after withdrew his forces. This city is also memorable as having been the birth-place of Propertius.

5. Spōlētium, to the southeast of the preceding, now Spoleto. It ranked high among the municipal towns of Italy, but it suffered severely from proscription in the civil wars of Marius and Sylla. 6. Carsūlæ, southwest of the preceding, and noticed by Strabo among the principal towns of Umbria. The ancient

site still retains the name of Carsoli. 7. Tūder, about eight miles to the northwest of Carsulæ, and now Todi. It was one of the most important cities of Umbria, and famous for the worship of Mars. Its situation on a lofty hill rendered it a place of great strength. 8. Amĕria, south of the preceding, and near the Tiber. It is now Amelia. This was one of the most considerable and ancient cities of Umbria, and, according to Cato, could boast of an origin greatly anterior to that of Rome. It was a municipium, and became a colony under Augustus. 9. Camerte, between Ameria and Tuder, and now Camarata. It was the chief city of the Camertes, a powerful Umbrian tribe.

10. Interamna, east of Ameria, and so called because situated between two branches of the River Nar. Hence, also, the inhabitants were known as the Interamnates Nartes, to distinguish them from those of Interamna on the Liris, in New Latium. It is now the well-known town of Terni. This place suffered severely in the civil wars between Marius and Sylla. The adjacent plains, which were watered by the Nar, are represented as the most productive in Italy, and Pliny assures us that the meadows were cut four times in the year. 11. Narnia, lower down on the Nar, more anciently called Nequinum, and now Narni. This change of name took place after the town had been taken by the Romans, when it received a colony with the view of serving as a point of defence against the Umbri. It was situate on a lofty hill, at the foot of which flowed the Nar. A bridge was raised over this river by Augustus, the arch of which was said to be the highest known. 12. Ocriculum, to the south of the preceding, and a few miles from the left bank of the Tiber. It is now Otricoli. This place suffered severely during the Social War, but was still, in Strabo's time, a city of note.

PICENUM.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, & C.

I. Picenum took its name from the Picentes, its inhabitants, who were a colony of Sabines; and these colonists are said to have assumed the appellation of Picentes because led in their migration from home by a woodpecker (picus), the sacred bird of Mamers or Mars. According, however, to the legend of the

poets, they were so called from the ancient Picus, the mythic leader of their colony.

II. Picenum was bounded on the north by Umbria, on the east by the Adriatic, on the west by Umbria and the country of the Sabines, and on the south by the country of the Sabines and that of the Vestini. This arrangement comprehends under the name of Picenum the territory of the Prætūtii, who were, in fact, however, a different people from the Picentes, but are here, for convenience' sake, ranked along with them under the same general head.

III. Picenum was regarded as one of the most fertile parts of Italy. The produce of its fruit-trees was particularly esteemed.

IV. The Sabines were not apparently the first or sole possessors of this country. The Siculi, Liburni, and Umbri, according to Pliny; the Pelasgi, as Silius Italicus reports; and the Tyrrheni, according to Strabo, all at different periods formed settlements in this part of Italy.

V. The conquest of Picenum cost the Romans but little trouble. It was effected about 269 B.C., not long after the expedition of Pyrrhus into Italy, when 360,000 men, as Pliny assures us, submitted to the Roman authorities.

(B.) CITIES OF PICENUM.

Beginning at the north, from the River Æsis, now the Esino, which separates Picenum, in this quarter, from Umbria, we come to, 1. Ancona, on the coast, and still retaining its ancient name. This place, in Greek 'Αγκών, was so called from the angular or bended form of the promontory on which it was placed, the term ἀγκών, in Greek, conveying the general idea of any thing curved or bent. This city is said to have been of Doric origin, and to have been founded by some Syracusans, who were flying from the tyranny of Dionysius. It is spoken of by Livy as a naval station of some importance in the wars of Rome with the Illyrians, and it continued to be a port of consequence even in Trajan's time, if we may judge from the works erected by that emperor, which are still extant there. According to Strabo, its territory was very fertile in corn and wine. Its purple dye is celebrated by Silius Italicus. 2. Numana, about ten miles further on, an old settlement of the Siculi, now Humana. 3. Potentia, on a river of the same name, now the Potenza. The remains of the city are close to the monastery of St. Maria di Potenza. 4. Firmum, to the southeast, and about five miles from the sea. It was colonized toward the beginning of the first Punic war. The modern town of Fermo answers to it, and is yet a place of some note in the Marca d'Ancona. The Castellum Firmanorum is now the Porto di Fermo. 5. Cupra, to the south, termed Maritima, to distinguish it from another city known by the name of Cupra Montana. It was an establishment of the Etruscans, who are said to have worshipped Juno here under the name of Cupra. The temple of the goddess was restored by Hadrian. The site of this place is commonly fixed at Marano. 6. Castrum Truentinum, at the mouth of the Truentus, now the Tronto, is said by Pliny to have been the only remaining establishment of the Liburni, a well-known Illyrian nation, in According to the same writer, they once occupied a considerable extent of territory on this coast.

Returning to the north of Picenum, in order to examine the interior of this province, we come to, 1. Cupra Montana, on the left bank of the Æsis, and so named from its situation among the mountains. It was near the present Masaccio d'Iesi. 2. Cingulum, a few miles to the south, now Cingolo. It surrendered to Cæsar, though Labienus, then a great partisan of Pompey's, had fortified it at his own expense. 3. Auximum, to the northeast, and near Ancona, now Osimo. From its strength this was one of the most important places in Picenum. In the time of Procopius it was a large city, and the capital of the province. 4. Ascălum Picenum, southwest of Firmum, and now Ascoli. It was called Picenum, to distinguish it from Asculum in Apulia. This city is described by Strabo as a place of great strength, being surrounded by walls and inaccessible heights. It was the first city to declare against the Romans when the social war broke out, and its example was followed by the whole of Picenum. In the course of that war it maintained a long and memorable siege against Pompey, who finally, however, compelled the place to surrender. Cicero mentions Barrus, a native of Asculum, as a most eloquent orator.

PRÆTUTII.

Or this people scarcely any thing is known except that they were of a different race from the Picentes. Their territory was fertile, and celebrated for its wine; and we know that Hannibal availed himself of these resources when he led his army through this district, on his way to the south, after his campaign in Etruria, as did Claudius Nero when proceeding by forced marches to join his colleague who was opposed to Hasdrubal.

Few places of any consequence occur in this territory. We may mention, however, 1. Interamna Prætutiāna, so called to distinguish it from three other cities of the name of Interamna, in other parts of Italy. Its modern name is Teramo, situated between the small rivers Viziola and Turdino. 2. Beregra, to the southwest of the preceding, on the River Vomanus, now the Vomano. Its particular site is undetermined. 3. Hadria, between the Vomanus and Matrinus, and at some distance from the sea. Its emporium was at the mouth of the latter river. Hadria is now Atri, and its harbor just mentioned, Porto d'Atri. This city is supposed to have been settled by a colony from the Hadria to the north of the Po. It seems generally allowed that the Emperor Hadrian was descended from a family originally of this city.

6. SABINI, ÆQUI, MARSI, PELIGNI, VESTINI, AND MARRUCINI. SABINI.

(A.) NAME, HISTORY, TERRITORY, &c.

I. The Sabines appear to be generally considered as one of the most ancient indigenous tribes of Italy, and one of the few who preserved their race pure and unmixed. Their name, according to Cato, was derived from the god Sabus, an aboriginal deity, whose son Sancus was the Sabine Hercules.

II. The Sabines were a mountaineer race originally, and appear to have been at first a very inconsiderable community, as may be seen from the accounts of Cato, who, as quoted by Dionysius of Halicarnassus, reported that the first Sabines settled in an obscure place named Testrīna, in the vicinity of Amĭternum. As their numbers increased, however, they rapidly extended themselves in every direction, expelling the Aborigines from the district of Reāte, and thence sending out numerous colonies into Picenum, Samnium, and the several petty nations who are named at the head of this section.

III. The early connection of the Sabines with Rome, which was yet in its infancy, naturally forms the most interesting epoch in their history, but is too well known to require further notice here. Their entire subjugation was effected by Curius Dentatus, who carried fire and desolation beyond the sources of the Nar and Velinus, to the very shores of the Adriatic.

IV. The country of the Sabines, in the reign of Augustus,

was bounded as follows: on the north by *Umbria*, on the south by *Latium*, on the west by *Umbria* and *Etruria*, and on the east by the country of the *Vestini*, *Marrucini*, &c.

V. The Romans had no general name comprehending the Sabines along with the tribes supposed to have issued from them. The latter, as well the Marsi and Peligni as the Samnites and Lucanians, they termed Sabellians.

(B.) CITIES OF THE SABINI.

Beginning at the junction of the Tiber and Anio, we come to, 1. Antemnæ, a city of the Aborigines, and more ancient than Rome itself. From its position it belonged strictly to Latium, being on the left bank of the Anio; but that it afterward formed part of the Sabine confederacy is evident from its being one of the first cities which resented the outrage offered to that nation by the rape of their women. Its name, according to Varro, indicated its position, "Antemnæ, quod ante amnem, qui influit in Tiberim." 2. Fidenæ, to the northeast, near the Tiber, and between four and five miles from Rome. It was at first a colony of Alba. Romulus conquered the place soon after the death of Tatius. After many attempts to emancipate itself, it was stormed by the dictator Mamercus Æmilius. After this it remained for a long time a deserted place, but it subsequently rose again to the rank of a municipium. A terrible disaster occurred here in the reign of Tiberius, by the fall of a wooden amphitheatre during a show of gladiators, by which accident fifty thousand persons, as Tacitus reports, or twenty thousand, according to Suetonius, were killed or wounded. The site of this city is near Castel Giubileo. 3. Crustumerium, about two miles further on, in the same direction. This was also a colony of Alba, and a place of great antiquity. The Crustumini were vanquished by Romulus, and a settlement was formed in their territory, the fertility of which is extolled by more than one writer. The ruins of Crustumerium still exist in a place called Marcigliano Vecchio. 4. Nomentum, northeast of the preceding, on the site now called by a corruption of the ancient name, Lamentana Vecchia. This also was a colony of Alba, and therefore originally, perhaps, a Latin city, but from its position it is generally attributed to the Sabines. Nomentum, in the time of Propertius, was but an insignificant place, yet its

territory was long celebrated for the produce of its vineyards, and hence, in the time of Seneca and Pliny, we find that land in this district was sold for enormous sums. The former had an estate in the vicinity of this town, which was his favorite retreat. The wine of Nomentum is praised by Athenœus and Martial.

5. Corniculum, to the east of the preceding, and giving name to the Corniculani Colles. It was the reputed birth-place of Servius Tullius. 6. Erctum, north of Nomentum, and the scene of many contests between the Romans and Sabines leagued with the Etruscans. In Strabo's time it was little more than a village. Its site is at Rimane, about two and a half miles beyond Monte Ritondo. 7. Regillum, near Eretum, and the native place of Atta Clausus, or Appius Claudius, the founder of the Claudian family at Rome. 8. Cures, to the north of Eretum, and celebrated as the birth-place of Numa Pompilius. It was a place of great antiquity, and though Virgil and Ovid apply the term parvi to it, yet it must have been a populous and powerful city to play the part it did in early Roman history. The site of Cures, according to the best opinion, is to be fixed at Correse, a little town on a river of the same name. 9. Mandēla, a village to the southeast of Cures, near which stood Horace's Sabine villa. It is now Bardela. The Mons Lucrētīlis, in its vicinity, is now Monte Libretti, and the little River Digentia is now the Licenza.

10. Reāte, to the northeast of Cures, and now Rieti. In antiquity of origin this city was equalled by few places in Italy, since, at the most remote period to which the records of that country extend, it is reported to have been the first seat of the Umbri, the same, probably, with the Aborigines of Italy. Reate was particularly celebrated for its breed of mules, and still more so for its asses, which sometimes fetched the enormous price of 60,000 sesterces, about \$2320. The valley of the Velinus, in which this city was situated, was so delightful as to merit the appellation of Tempe, and from their dewy freshness its meadows obtained the name of Rosei Campi. 11. Cutilia, to the east of Reate, and also an aboriginal city of great antiquity. It was celebrated for its lake, now Pozzo Ratignano, and the floating island on its surface. This lake was further distinguished by the appellation of the umbilicus, or centre of Italy,

a fact which D'Anville found to be correct, when referred to the breadth of Italy. Cutiliæ was also famed for its mineral waters, which failed, however, in their effect on Vespasian, who is stated to have died here.

12. Testrina, to the southeast of Cutiliæ, and the first seat of the Sabine nation. Its site is near Civita Tommassa.

13. Amiternum, northeast of Testrina, near the modern St. Vittorino, and a place of great antiquity. It was the birth-place of Sallust. 14. Nursia, in the northeastern corner of the Sabine territory, at the foot of the central chain of the Apennines, and near the sources of the Nar. It was noted for the coldness of its atmosphere, and is now Norcia. Polla Vespäsia, the mother of Vespasian, was born here, and we are told that the family of that emperor had possessions at a place called Vespāsiæ, between Nursia and Spoletum, a memorial of which is still preserved in the name of Monte Vespio.

ÆQUI, OR ÆQUICOLI.

(A.) HISTORY, SITUATION, &c.

I. The Æqui, or Æquicŏli, as they are sometimes called, are more distinguished in history for their early and incessant hostility to Rome, than for the extent of their territory or their numbers. Livy himself expresses his surprise that a nation apparently so small and insignificant should have had a population adequate to the calls of a constant and harassing warfare, which it carried on against that city for so many years.

II. But it is plain, from the narrow limits which must be assigned to this people, that their contests with Rome can not be viewed in the light of a regular war, but as a succession of marauding expeditions, made by these hardy but lawless mountaineers on the territory of that city, and which could only be effectually checked by the most entire and rigid subjection.

III. The Æqui are to be placed next to the Sabines, and between them and the Marsi, chiefly in the upper valley of the Anio, which separated them from the Latins. They are said at one time to have been possessed of forty towns; but many of these must certainly have been little more than villages, and some, also, were subsequently included within the boundaries of Latium.

(B.) CITIES OF THE ÆQUI.

1. Văria, lying close to the Digentia of Horace. In Strabo (v., p. 238) it is probable that we ought to read Varia for Valeria. The modern name of this place is Vicovaro. 2. Carsĕŏli, about fifteen miles to the northeast of Varia. It was apparently a town of some consequence, and became a Roman colony after the Æqui were finally reduced. It appears to have been sometimes selected by the senate as a residence for illus-

trious state captives and hostages. The ruins of this place are still called *Celle di Carsoli*. 3. *Trĕba*, near the sources of the Anio, now *Trevi*. This town appears to have been further distinguished by the name of *Augusta*, but after what emperor it was so called is uncertain. A little lower down, the Anio forms three small lakes, called *Simbrivii Lacus*, or *Simbruina Stagna*. The coolness and salutary virtue of these waters are commended by Celsus. 4. *Sublăquĕum*, in the vicinity of the lakes just mentioned, and now *Subiaco*. The ancient name has reference to its situation with regard to these lakes. It may be collected from Tacitus (*Ann.*, xiv., 22) that this place was at first only a villa of Nero's.

MARSI

(A.) HISTORY, SITUATION, &c.

I. The Marsi, though inconsiderable as a people, are entitled to honorable notice in the page of history for their hardihood and warlike spirit. Their origin, like that of many other Italian tribes, is enveloped in obscurity and fiction. A certain Phrygian, named Marsyas, is said to have been the founder of their race; by others, Marsus, the son of Circe. (Plin., vii., 2.) Hence they are represented as enchanters, whose potent spells deprived the viper of its venom, or cured the hurt which it might have caused.

II. We do not find the Marsi engaged in war with Rome before B.C. 308, when they are defeated and forced to sue for peace. Six years after they again assume a hostile character, but with as little success: they are beaten in the field, and lose several of their fortresses. From this time we find them the firm and staunch allies of Rome, and contributing by their valor to her triumphs, till her haughty and domineering spirit compels them and most of the other neighboring communities to seek by force of arms for that redress of their wrongs, and that concession of privileges and immunities, which was not to be granted to their entreaties. In the war which ensues, and which, from this circumstance, is called the Marsic as well as the Social War, the Marsi are the first to take the field under their leader Silus Pompædius, B.C. 90. Though often defeated, the perseverance of the allies is at last crowned with success by the grant of those immunities which they may be said to have extorted from the Roman senate.

III. The Marsi were contiguous to the Sabines and Vestini on the north, to the Æqui and Hernici on the west and southwest, to the Samnites on the south, and to the Peligni on the east.

(B.) CITIES OF THE MARSI.

1. Marrăvium or Marrăbium, the capital of the race, on the eastern shore of Lacus Fucinus. Its site is to be fixed at San Benedetto, where inscriptions have been discovered. The ancient name appears to contain the same root with that of the Marsi. No Roman colony was ever established here. 2. Alba

Fucentia, a short distance northwest of the lake. From its strong and secluded situation, it appears to have been selected by the Roman senate as a fit place of residence for captives of rank and consequence, as well as for notorious offenders. Among the former we may mention Syphax, who was afterward removed to Tibur; Perseus, king of Macedonia, and his son Alexander; and Bituitus, king of the Arverni. At the time of Cæsar's invasion of his country, we find Alba adhering to the cause of Pompey, and subsequently repelling the attack of Antony, on which occasion it obtained a warm and eloquent eulogium from Cicero. Its ruins are still considerable, and stand about a mile from the modern city of Alba. 3. Lucus, on the western shore of the lake. Its inhabitants are called Lucenses by Pliny, and it appears to answer to the modern Luco. Near this place was the celebrated Lucus Angitia, or grove of Angitia, the sister of Circe, and to which allusion is made by Virgil.

PELIGNI.

(A.) HISTORY, SITUATION, &c.

I. The Peligni were not distinguished from the other tribes by which they were surrounded either by their political importance or the extent of their country; but they derive some consideration in history from the circumstance of their chief city having been selected by the allies in the Social War as the seat of their new empire. Had their plans succeeded, and had Rome fallen beneath the effects of their coalition, Corfinium would have become the capital of Italy, and perhaps of the world.

II. The Peligni, according to Festus, were of Illyrian origin; but Ovid, who ought to be considered good authority in what regards his own countrymen, expressly informs us that they were descended from the Sabines.

III. The small and mountainous country of the Peligni seems to have been noted for the coldness of its climate, as well as for the abundance of its springs and streams. Some portion of it, however, was fertile. It was separated from the Marsi on the west by the Apennines; to the north it bordered on the Vestini; to the east and southeast on the Marrucīni, Frentāni, and part of Samnium.

(B.) CITIES OF THE PELIGNI.

1. Corfinium, the chief city of the race, in a northeast direction from Marruvium. It has already been referred to as having been selected by the allies in the Social War for the seat of their empire. Corfinium assumed, in consequence, the name of *Italica*, as standing at the head of the new Italian confederacy. It enjoyed the honor, however, of being styled the capital of Italy only for a short period, since it appears to have se-

ceded from the coalition before the conclusion of the war. In later times we find it regarded as one of the most important cities of this part of Italy, and one which Cæsar was most anxious to secure in his enterprise against the liberties of his country. It surrendered to him after a short defence. The church of St. Pelino, about three miles from the town of Popoli, stands on the site of this ancient city. 2. Sulmo, about seven miles southeast of the preceding, and now Sulmone. It is worthy of note as having been the birth-place of Ovid. We learn from Florus that this city was exposed to all the vengeance of Sylla for having been attached to the cause of Marius. It was not, however, destroyed by him, since we soon after read of its falling into the hands of Cæsar together with Corfinium. 3. Super Equum, to the northwest of the preceding, and, according to Frontinus, a Roman colony. It occupied the site of the modern Castel Vecchio Subequo.

VESTINI.

(A.) HISTORY, SITUATION, &c.

I. The Vestini occupied an equally mountainous, though more extensive tract of country than the other communities which have just been described. To the east they reached as far as the sea, being separated from the Pratutii on the north by the River Matrinus, and from the Marrucini on the southeast by the River Aternus. On the west they bordered on the Sabines, and on the south on the Peligni.

II. Their history offers no circumstances of peculiar interest. They are first introduced to our notice in the Roman annals as the allies of the Samnites, a people to whom they are said not to have been inferior in valor; but, being separately attacked by the Romans, the Vestini, too weak to make any effectual resistance, were soon compelled to submit.

III. This people, however, were not behindhand with their neighbors in taking up arms on the breaking out of the Social War; they bore an active part in the exertions and perils of that fierce and sanguinary contest, and received their share of the rights and privileges which, on its termination, were granted to the confederates.

(B.) CITIES OF THE VESTINI.

1. Pinna, now Civita di Penna, the chief city of the race. We are informed by Valerius Maximus that it sustained a siege against the Roman army during the Social War. It subsequently became a Roman colony. Vitruvius notices some waters in its vicinity as being nitrous. 2. Angūlus, nearer the coast, now Civita Sant' Angelo. 3. Cutīna and Cingilia, two fortresses among the Apennines. The former is now Aquana, and the

latter Aretenga. A little to the north of Aquana, and on the borders of Picenum, rises Monte Corno, called, also, il Gran Sasso, and considered to be the highest summit of the Apennines. It is probably the ancient Mons Cunarus. 4. Aufina, between the two last-mentioned places, and now Ofena. 5. Aternum, at the mouth of the Aternus, now Pescara, which is also the modern name of the place. 6. Pitīnum, near the upper part of the Aternus, and now Torre di Pitino. It was situate near a little stream called Novanus by Pliny, which was noted for being dry in winter, but plentifully supplied in summer.

MARRUCINI.

I. The Marrucīni appear to have occupied a narrow strip of territory on the right bank of the River Aternus, between the Vestini to the north, and the Frentāni to the south, and between the Peligni and the sea toward the west and east. Cato derived their origin from the Marsi. Like that people, they were accounted a hardy and warlike race, and with them they made common cause against the tyranny of Rome.

II. The only city of note which we find ascribed to the *Marrucini* is *Teāte*, now *Chieti*, on the right bank of the *Aternus* or *Pescara*. But all accounts agree in describing it as a large and populous place, and worthy of being ranked among the distinguished cities of Italy. The family of Asinius Pollio came originally from this place.

7. ROMA.

I. Rōma, now Rome, the celebrated capital of Italy and the Roman empire, was situate on the left, or eastern bank of the Tiber, below the junction of the Anio with that stream. From the time of Servius Tullius it extended over seven hills, and hence was often called Urbs Septicollis. From the time of Aurelian, however, it spread over ten hills, the names of which are Mons Palatinus, Capitolinus, Cælius, Aventinus, Quirinalis, Viminalis, Esquilinus, Janiculus, Collis Hortulorum or Mons Pincius, and Vaticanus.

II. Of these hills the *Palatine* was in the centre, while the *Collis Hortulorum* and the *Aventine* were the farthest on the north and south. Before the Collis Hortulorum was included in the city, the furthest hill on the north was the *Quirinal*. On the *Palatine* Hill was the celebrated *Palatine Library*, and the splendid temple of Apollo with which it was connected. Here, too, was the residence of Augustus, subsequently enlarged into the magnificent palace of the Cæsars. The *Palatine* was the first inhabited part of Rome, and is sometimes put,

by way of eminence, for the whole city. On the Capitoline Hill stood the Capitol, or Temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. Between this hill and the Palatine was the Forum, from which three ascents led to the Capitol: 1st. By the one hundred steps of the Tarpeian Rock, which was probably on the steepest side, where it overhangs the Tiber; 2d. By the Clivus Capitolinus, which began from the Arch of Tiberius and the Temple of Saturn; and 3d. By the Clivus Asyli, which, being less steep than the other two, was on that account the road by which the triumphant generals were borne in their cars to the Capitol. The Aventine Hill is said to have been the place where Remus took his station when consulting the auspices with a view to founding Rome; and here, too, he is reported to have been interred. The public granaries of the city stood in this quarter, on account of the convenience, probably, which the river here afforded of landing the wheat which came from Sicily, Egypt, and Africa. On the Esquiline Hill were the splendid palace and gardens of Mæcenas. Julius Cæsar was born in that part of the Suburra which was situate on this hill. The Campus Esquilinus, a plot of ground without the walls of the city, was in the early days of Rome a burial-place for the lower orders, and the Esquiline Hill seems to have been considered unhealthy till this mode of burial was discontinued. The Janiculan Hill, across the Tiber, was said to have derived its name from a city founded on its summit by Janus. Tradition reported that Numa was buried at the foot of this hill. The Vatican Hill was supposed to have been so called from the Latin word vates, or vaticinium, as having once been the seat of Etruscan divination.

III. Ancient Rome had in the time of Pliny thirty-seven gates, exclusive of seven which no longer existed. In the time of Frontinus, nine aqueducts supplied it with water, a number which later authors magnify to fourteen, and even twenty; but the latter statement, which rests on the authority of Aurelius Victor alone, is probably exaggerated, and it is supposed that he counted the different channels or conduits of water, not the aqueducts themselves.

IV. Lipsius, a modern scholar, has computed the population of ancient Rome and the environs at four millions. This, however, should rather be called a conjecture than a calculation upon any solid data. A later and more careful computation

makes the inhabitants of the fourteen regions, or wards, into which Rome was divided by Augustus, to have amounted to 1,104,000. The true number, probably, was near 2,000,000.

TOPOGRAPHY OF ROME MORE IN DETAIL.

1. THE EARLY CITY.

I. It is universally admitted that the part of Rome which was said to have been built by Romulus occupied the Palatine Hill, on the eastern side of the Tiber. This town on the hill was, according to the custom of the Latins, built in a square form, whence it was called Roma Quadrāta. It is more than probable, however, that this same city existed long before the so-called era of Romulus; in other words, that no such individual as Romulus ever existed, and that the place said to have been founded by him on the Palatine Hill was a Siculian, Pelasgian, or Tyrrhenian town, whose name was Roma. This will serve to explain the statement that Rome was a Tyrrhenian city, as well as the foreign appearance of the name Roma itself.

II. As early as the so-called time of Romulus, Etruscan settlements existed on the Cælian Hill, and extended over *Mons Cispius* and *Oppius*, which are parts of the Esquiline. Whether these Etruscans lived in open villages or fortified places is unknown; but we learn from Varro that they were compelled by the Romans to abandon their seats on the hills, and to descend into the plains between the Cælian and the Esquiline, whence the *Vicus Tuscus* in that district derived its name. The principal of these Etruscan settlements was, according to the well-known hypothesis of Niebuhr, called *Lucĕrum*, and the Etruscan settlers themselves were called *Lucĕres*. These Luceres, in the early history of the Roman state, were in a state of subjection to the other tribes,

from which they emerged only by degrees.

III. The three hills north of the Palatine, namely, the Quirinal, Viminal, and Capitoline, were occupied by Sabines, and the last of these hills was their citadel. Their town on the Quirinal was, according to Niebuhr, called Quirium. When the Latin and Sabine towns became united, the valleys between the hills must have been drained, and the cloacæ by which this was effected belong to the earliest architectural remains of Rome. The valley between the Palatine and the Capitoline was set apart as the place of meeting for the two nations (Comitium and Forum Romanum), and the boundary between the territories of the two towns was probably marked by the Via Sacra, which came down from the top of the Velia, ran between the Quirinal and Palatine, and then, making a bend, proceeded between the latter hill and the Capitoline as far as the Temple of Vesta, whence it turned right across the Comitium toward the gate of the Palatine.

IV. The seven hills inhabited by these three different nations were united into one town, and surrounded by a wall by King Servius Tullius. The Pōmērium, that is, the precincts within which auguria could be taken, had been extended with the increase of the city, but the Aventine, though included in the new wall, did not lie within the Pomerium, and it continued to be chiefly occupied by plebeians. Hence it is not mentioned among the districts of the city by Varro, who calls them Palatium, Velia, Cermălus, Calius, Fagütal, Oppius, and Cispius.

V. The whole circumference of the walls of Servius Tullius was about six miles. They included considerable tracts of land which were not occupied by

buildings, but were either pasture grounds or covered with wood or thickets, such as great part of the Esquiline and Viminal. Accordingly, in time of war, the people of the surrounding districts took refuge within the walls of the city, where they found sufficient space and food for their cattle. It was, however, principally the inner space, near the wall itself, which was not occupied by buildings until a very late period. Servius Tullius divided the whole city within the walls into four regions, which coincided with the four city tribes into which he divided the commonalty. Each of these regions was again subdivided into six districts, which derived their names from the Sacella Argaorum, which probably stood wherever two streets crossed each other, so that these subdivisions appear to have been compact masses of houses, such as were subsequently called vici. Their number is stated by Varro to have been twenty-seven; twenty-four belonging to the four regions, and the three remaining ones probably to the Capitoline.

2. Progress of Architecture, &c., at Rome.

I. Many great works were erected at Rome during the kingly period. The great Temple of Jupiter was on the Capitoline. The prison of Tullius, called Carcer Tullianus or Mamertinus, was at the eastern foot of the same hill. The Circus Maximus was between the Palatine and Aventine, of which there are probably no remains. The Cloāca Maxima carried the waters of the Velabrum and the Forum Romanum into the Tiber, and was a stupendous work. The wall of the elder Tarquin formed an embankment on the east side of the river: the remains are still visible to some extent. Of the wall of Servius Tullius few traces remain; but it existed in the eighth century of Rome, as appears from the description of Pliny (iii., 5), and from Dionysius of Halicarnassus (ix., p. 624).

II. During the early part of the Republic, we find no mention of such great architectural works as those which were built during the period of the kings; but, with the increase of the population, many of the uncultivated and uninhabited districts must have gradually become covered with houses. About one hundred and twenty years after the establishment of the Republic, when the city was taken by the Gauls, the whole was consumed by fire, with the exception of the Capitol, a few houses on the Palatine, and some of the works above enumerated, the magnitude of which saved them from destruction. The hasty mode in which the city was rebuilt explains the fact that, down to the time of Nero, the streets of Rome were narrow, irregular, and crooked, and, in point of beauty and regularity, Rome was far inferior to most of the other great cities of Italy. After this restoration a long time probably passed before any new ground was built upon. Down to the fifth century of the city, private houses were generally covered with shingles, and there continued to be a number of groves within the walls of the city. But toward the end of the period which is comprised between the Gallic conflagration and the end of the second Punic war, Rome began to be embellished with temples, which, however, both as to material and architecture, were far inferior to the temples of Greece. High roads and aqueducts also began to be built. The streets of the city itself were not paved, though we have no reason to suppose that they were neglected. At a somewhat later period, we find public places, streets, and walks under the porticoes commonly paved with large square blocks of tuffo or of travertino. In the year 176 B.C., the censors ordered the streets of the city to be paved with blocks of basalt, which were laid on a stratum of gravel, such as is still visible in a part of the Via Appia. At the time of the war with Hannibal, the district

near the river, between the Capitoline and the Aventine, was almost entirely covered with buildings, and it was called Extra Portam Flumentanam.

III. The private houses had, from the earliest times, been very simple in structure; but, after the conquest of Greece, and more especially of Asia, individuals began to build their dwellings in a magnificent style, and the taste for splendid mansions and palaces increased so rapidly, that a house like that of Crassus, which at first was universally admired for its splendor and magnificence, in the course of a few years was lost among superior buildings. Public edifices, however, still remained the chief objects of the pride of the Romans. Theatres, a class of buildings which had once been scarcely tolerated, were erected in several parts of Rome during the last century of the Republic, especially after the time of Sylla. During the civil wars between Marius and Sylla, we find that the number of houses had increased to such a degree, that the walls of Servius Tullius in several parts lay within the city itself, and Niebuhr thinks it not improbable that at this time a suburb already existed in the plain west of the Tiber, which was afterward called the Regio Transtiberina. At the beginning of the eighth century of the city, another suburb is mentioned, In Emilianis, between the Circus Flaminius and the Quirinal. A third arose south of the Cælius, a mile from the Porta Capena, and was called Ad Martis. Of all the splendid buildings, however, which were raised during the latter part of the Republic, scarcely any traces exist, and the only remains which can with any probability be reckoned among them are the substructions of three ancient temples, below the church of San Nicola in Carcere, the so-called Temple of Fortuna Virilis, not far from the Theatre of Marcellus, and perhaps, also, the three columns of the so-called Temple of Castor and Pollux, near the Forum.

IV. Augustus might well say that he had changed Rome from a city of brick into one of marble, for the roads, aqueducts, and public buildings of every description, temples, arcades, and theatres, which were constructed during his long and peaceful reign, were almost innumerable. The whole plain between the Quirinal and the river became a new town, which in splendor and magnificence far surpassed the city of the hills: this new town was one mass of temples, arcades, theatres, and public places of amusement, not interrupted by any private habitations. Aqueducts, for the purpose of supplying the city with water, had been built as early as the year 313 B.C., and the first (Aqua Appia) was begun by Appius Claudius. It ran almost entirely under ground, and conveyed the water, from a distance of about eight miles, in the direction of the Porta Capena, into the city. Other aqueducts (Anio Vetus, 273 B.C.; Aqua Marcia, 145 B.C.; Těpŭla, 127 B.C.; Julia, 35 B.C.) were constructed; but it was not until the imperial period that this kind of architecture reached its perfection, and most of the remains which are still extant belong to the period of the empire. They were mostly built upon arches, which had an easy inclination, so that the water ran gently from its source toward the city. Augustus built two new aqueducts (Aqua Alsietina or Augusta, and Aqua Virga), and increased the Marcia. Subsequent emperors added the Aqua Claudia; Anio Novus (both in A.D. 50); Aqua Trajana (A.D. 111); Antoniniana (A.D. 212); Alexandrina (A.D. 230); and Jovia (A.D. 300).

V. The division into four regions, made by Servius Tullius, had remained unaltered; but Augustus, for the convenience of administration, divided the whole city, both within and without the walls of Servius, into fourteen new regions, a division which continued to the eighth century, when it began gradually to give way to the Ecclesiastical division into seven regions. Each of the Augustan regions, according to a survey taken in the reign of Vespasian, contained

nineteen, or, according to a later account, twenty-two vici, with as many sacella, in places where two streets crossed each other (in compitis). Each vicus seems, on an average, to have contained about two hundred and thirty dwellinghouses, so that every region contained more than four thousand. About one twenty-fifth part of this number of houses were domus, that is, habitations of the rich (palazzi), with a portico in front, and an extensive inner court (atrium). The remaining twenty-four twenty-fifths consisted of insulæ, that is, habitations for citizens of the middle and lower classes; they had no portico in front, but mostly an open space, which served as a shop or work-shop. In the interior they may have had a court, but of smaller extent than the atrium of a domus. The number of these insulæ was about forty-four thousand. All Roman houses were very high. Augustus fixed seventy and Trajan sixty feet as the height, above which none were allowed to be built, and the upper story was usually of wood. It was a law of the Twelve Tables, which also occurs in the Roman legislation of later times, that no two houses, whether domus or insula, should be built closely together, but that an open space of five feet should be left between them.

VI. Tiberius, besides completing many of the buildings of his predecessor, began the Pratorian Camp on the northeast side of the city, in the Campus Viminalis, and surrounded it with high walls. The wealthy Romans at this time had their palaces principally in the district from the Porta Collina to the Porta Cœlimontana; they did not, however, form streets, but lay in gardens within the fields between the high roads which issued from the city, and hence they are generally called Horti, as Horti Macenātis, Pallantiāni, Epaphrodīti, &c. All that had been done, however, for the embellishment of the city previous to the reign of Nero, was eclipsed by the magnificent buildings of this emperor; but the greater part of these works, together with those of former days, perished in the conflagration which took place in his reign. His plan of restoring Rome was gigantic, and proved to be impracticable: he proposed to make Rome a port, and to connect it with the sea by long walls from the Capitol to Ostia. But all that he could do, notwithstanding his profusion, was to restore those parts of the city which had been destroyed. The face of the new city, however, assumed a totally different aspect. On the ruins of the temples and the imperial palace on the Palatine rose the so-called golden house of Nero, which occupied a space equal to a large town. The greatest care was taken to make the new streets wide and straight, and that the buildings should not exceed a reasonable height. In order to render possible the execution of the regular plan, the several quarters of the city were measured, and the heaps of ruins were removed, and conveyed in ships to Ostia, to fill up the marshes in its vicinity. All the new buildings were massive, and constructed of the fire-proof peperino, without the old wooden story. The width of the new streets rendered it necessary to extend the city beyond its former limits. Some time afterward, in the reign of Vespasian, a measurement of the circumference of Rome was taken, according to which it amounted to thirteen and one fifth Roman miles. The subsequent emperors continued to increase and embellish the city; but under Commodus a great part was again consumed by a fire, which destroyed all the buildings on the Palatine. Septimius Severus exerted himself to restore the parts which had been burned, and to ornament the city, and some of his buildings are still extant. But the grandeur and magnificence of the thermæ of Caracalla, south of the Porta Capena, surpassed all the works of his predecessors. Almost all the great buildings, or their remains, which still exist at Rome, belong to the period between Nero and Constantine.

VII. The most extensive work of this latter period is the immense wall, with its numerous towers, with which Aurelian surrounded the city. The work, which was completed in the reign of Probus (A.D. 276), does not, however, enable us to form a correct estimate of the real extent of the city, as the objects of the fortifications may have rendered it necessary to enclose parts which were not covered with buildings. The whole circumference of these new fortifications was about twenty-one miles. Seven bridges connected the eastern and western sides of the river. In the time of Honorius, some parts of this wall were decayed, and others had become useless on account of the great quantity of rubbish which had accumulated near them, but they were restored by this emperor.

VIII. After the time of Constantine, when the emperors and the Roman nobles had adopted the Christian religion, the decay and destruction of the ancient edifices commenced. The building of numerous churches was the immediate cause of this destruction. Neither the court nor private individuals possessed sufficient wealth to raise buildings equal in form or material to those of their ancestors, and as heathen temples could not always be converted into Christian churches, they were generally pulled down and the materials used for other purposes. During the fifth century of our era, great calamities were inflicted upon Rome by the ravages of the northern barbarians, though it is a mistake to suppose that the buildings of Rome suffered much injury from the invaders, for they could have no interest in destroying any thing, and all historians agree in stating that it was their principal object to carry away gold, silver, and other costly things. The few buildings which were destroyed at the capture of the city by Alaric were near the Porta Salaria, where the enemy entered. There are in this part still some remains of the house of Sallust, which was destroyed on that occasion. A harder fate befell the city in 455, when it was taken by the Vandals, though even then, and notwithstanding the sack of fourteen days, the buildings seem to have suffered little; the precious metals were the main object of the cupidity of the barbarians. Theodoric and his immediate successors not only took the greatest care to preserve what remained, but even exerted themselves to restore the public buildings which had suffered, or were beginning to decay. The population, however, rapidly decreased during the fifth century, and became impoverished, so that, toward the end of the century, the suburbs around Rome seem to have no longer existed, with the exception of that which had arisen between the northern extremity of the Janiculum and the Vatican. Rome was thus confined to the walls of Aurelian and their restoration by Honorius, and even within its precincts extensive districts were uninhabited. The most remarkable buildings of former days, indeed, still existed, but after the reign of Deodatus they were entirely neglected, and thus one after another they fell into decay and ruin.

8. LATIUM.

(A.) NAME, EXTENT, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. The name Latium is derived by the Roman poets from the circumstance of Saturn's having lain concealed there, after having been driven by Jupiter from the skies (quod ibi latuisset Saturnus). Modern investigators, however, leaving the region of fable, have traced in the name of the country an allusion to its flat or marshy character.

Obs. Abeken, in his Mittelitalien vor den Zeiten röm. Herrsch., p. 42, deduces the name Latium from latus, comparing this last with πλατύς and platea. Grotefend, on the other hand, seeks for the origin of the term in the Celtic language, and makes the name mean "marshy land," "fenny country," answering to the German Sumpfland. Klotz, following out this idea, supposes the word to be in affinity with lacus, whence may have been formed Lacinius, and from this Latinus. (Handb. der lat. Litteraturgesch., p. 181, note.)

II. Lătium anciently extended from the mouth of the Tiber in the north, as far only as the Circeian Promontory in the south, a distance of about fifty miles along the coast, and this part was subsequently distinguished by the name of Latium vetus or antiquum. At a later period the name of Latium was extended as far south as the mouth of the River Līris, and inland as far as the country of the Marsi and Peligni, and the part thus added was called Latium novum or adjectum, to distinguish it from ancient Latium.

III. Latium, therefore, as comprehending both the Old and the New, was bounded on the north by *Etruria*, the territory of the *Sabines*, and the country of the *Æqui* and *Marsi*, on the west and south by the *Lower Sea*, and on the east by *Samnium* and *Campania*.

(B.) HISTORICAL SKETCH OF LATIUM IN ITS EARLIER STATE.

I. According to Aristotle, who calls Latium a district in Opica, its inhabitants would have been the Oscans or Opicans; but, according to the traditions of the Romans themselves, which are collected and minutely discussed in Dionysius of Halicarnassus, Latium was inhabited in the earliest times by Siculi, a Pelasgian tribe, whom tradition traced to some mythical king Latinus. These Siculi were connected with the Itali in the extreme south of Italy. The district northeast of Latium, in the neighborhood of Reāte and Carseŏli, was inhabited by the Aborīgines, a kindred tribe of the Siculi.

II. These Aborigines were driven from their seats, and urged forward to the River Anio by the Sabines. The Siculians of Latium were obliged to give way before the Aborigines, and a portion of them were said to have emigrated to Sicily, which derived its name from them. The ancient name of the Aborigines was Casci, Prisci, or Sacrāni; and, in connection with those Siculians who remained behind in Latium, they gradually formed the people of the Prisci Latini, that is, Prisci et Latini, or simply Latini.

III. The Aborigines are described by the poets and historians of later ages as a savage nation, without laws and civilized manners, and as living on the produce of the chase; but this description seems to be no more than a sort of philosophical notion, which persons of a civilized age are always apt to form of the earliest periods of their history. We know that the Aborigines were an agricultural people, and lived in villages and towns, of which Varro, in his *Origines*, has given a list, and some of which continued to be inhabited in the time of Dionysius of Halicarnassus, such as *Palatium*, on the Quintian road. Most of these towns, however, lay in ruins.

IV. The population of Latium was thus a mixed one, consisting, on the one hand, of Siculians and Oscans, all of whom belonged to the Pelasgian race, and, on the other, of Sabellians (Sabines). This fact is not only stated in the ancient traditions, but is manifest from the language spoken in Latium (the Latin language, or the language of the Latins), for we can still distinguish the two elements: one is of a Pelasgian character, and constitutes the great affinity between the Latin and Greek languages; the other element, which is utterly foreign to the Greek, is of Sabellian origin. From these elements, so far as they are discernible, we may form some idea of the character of the two respective nations. Most Latin words relating to agriculture and a more civilized state of society, are the same in Latin and Greek; but others, which are of Sabellian origin, are chiefly words relating to war and the chase.

V. The Aborigines are said to have worshipped Janus, as the founder of a better mode of life: Saturn was believed to have taught them husbandry, and accustomed them to live in fixed habitations. Janus or Dianus was the god of the sun; Saturn and his wife Ops were, in all probability, the god and goddess of the earth, that is, the personifications of the vivifying and productive powers of the earth.

VI. The tradition of the arrival of a Trojan colony in Latium must be regarded in no other light than as a mere fiction, and a fiction probably not introduced by the Greeks, but homesprung and of Italian origin.

VII. From all that we can learn, it would appear that Latium, long before the time assigned to the building of Rome, was a flourishing country, and stocked with numerous towns

and villages. Its inhabitants formed a powerful confederacy, the affairs of which were discussed in assemblies held near the well of Ferentina, in the neighborhood of Alba, and which extended from the Tiber in the north to *Terracina* in the south. The history of the confederacy previous to the building of Rome is completely lost, for the lists of the kings of Alba, as well as the number of years assigned to the reign of each, must be rejected as late fabrications. The founders of Rome are called descendants of the Alban kings, although the legends nowhere describe Rome as a colony of Alba.

(C.) CITIES OF LATIUM.

Beginning from the Tiber, as being the northern limit of this province, we come to, 1. Ostia, situate at the southern mouth of the Tiber, and the ancient port of Rome. According to Strabo and other ancient writers, it was founded by Ancus Marcius. It stood on a narrow peninsula between the river and the Lacus Ostia, now Stagno di Levante, which formerly communicated with the sea, but is now separated from it by a considerable tract of sand. The port appears to have been a mere anchorage, near the site of the modern Torre Bovacciana, in which the Roman fleet used to be moored. It was open, however, and unprotected, for we read in Cicero's Oration for the Manilian Law that the Cilician pirates captured and plundered the fleet moored there, to the great disgrace of the Roman name. This anchorage ground has long been filled up with sand, and the sea is now nearly two miles from old Ostia. Strabo describes Ostia as having no port, and he says that the mouth of the river had become so choked up, that only small vessels could ascend the stream. Hence the Emperor Claudius was induced to construct a new harbor on the northern arm of the Tiber. A new basin was excavated, a large mole with a pharos was erected, and a magnificent port was the result, which took the name of Portus Augusti. Ostia, in consequence, rapidly declined, and in the time of Procopius, about the middle of the sixth century, was in a ruined state and nearly deserted. The site is now marked by a heap of ruins. The modern Ostia, which is a miserable place, is at some distance from the ancient city. The harbor of Claudius, in time, became itself choked up, and it is now a stagnant lagune, the sea having retired nearly two miles

on that side also. There are some remains of antiquity here, and the place still retains the name of *Porto*. It was in consequence of the failure of Claudius's harbor that Trajan constructed the excellent one at *Centum Cellæ* in Etruria. Between the two branches of the Tiber was the *Insula Sacra*.

2. Laurentum, about sixteen miles to the southeast of Ostia, and near the spot now called Paterno. Virgil makes it to have been the capital of Latinus. Still, however, whatever may be thought of Æneas and the Trojan colony, it is very evident from ancient authorities that a city of this name did actually exist in this quarter. The country around was thickly covered with groves of bay (laurus), and hence arose the appellation given to the place. The marshes in the vicinity abounded in wild boars. The adjacent country is now rendered unhealthy by the malaria, but in ancient times it appears to have been just the reverse, and was crowded with villas of the Roman nobility. 3. Lavinium, to the southeast of the preceding, and fabled to have been founded by Æneas on his marriage with Lavinia, after whom he gave it its name. The place, however, is actually enumerated among the cities of Latium by Strabo and other authors, as well as by the Itineraries. Its site is supposed to answer to the modern Pratica, about three miles from the coast.

A little beyond the site of the ancient Lavinium we come to a small stream now called Rio Torto, which probably answers to the celebrated Numicius of Virgil, on the banks of which, according to the legend, Æneas fell in battle. Near the source of the Numicius was a grove consecrated to Æneas under the title of Jupiter Indiges. Beyond the Numicius we enter the territory of the ancient Rŭtŭli, a small people, who, though perhaps originally distinct from the Latins, became subsequently so much a part of that nation that it would be superfluous to notice them under a separate head. Their capital was Ardea, a very ancient city, fabled to have been founded by Danaë, mother of Perseus. Virgil makes it the capital of his Turnus. The ruins of the place still bear the name of Ardea, and are situate on a hill about three miles from the sea. According to Livy and Silius Italicus, Ardea sent a colony to Saguntum in Spain, and contributed mainly to the establishment of that city. Ardea is memorable in early Roman history as the place, during the siege of which the affair of Lucretia occurred, which led to the expulsion of the Tarquins. This city, according to Livy, afforded an asylum to Camillus on his going into voluntary exile from Rome. To the southwest of Ardea lay Castrum Inui, the exact situation of which is uncertain. According to Nibby, however, the name of Incastro, attached to the little stream near which the ruins of Ardea are situated, seems to preserve a memorial of the Castrum Inui.

What remains of the coast will be more conveniently examined in describing the country of the Volsci, to which we will presently come. In the mean time, proceeding into the interior of Latium from Ardea, in a northwesterly direction, we find, 1. Lanuvium, the ruins of which still bear the name of Civita Lavinia or Città della Vigna. The similarity of the former of these modern appellations has sometimes caused this city to be mistaken for Lavinium, but by the different positions of the two towns they are easily distinguished. Lanuvium was situate on the right of the Appian Way, on a hill commanding an extensive prospect toward Antium and the sea. The temple and worship of Juno Sospita were here held in great veneration. Among the natives of this place more or less known in history or otherwise, may be named Milo, the antagonist of Clodius, Roscius, the celebrated actor, and the three Antonines. Milo was dictator of Lanuvium, and was on his way thither when the encounter took place which ended in the death of Clodius. 2. Arīcia, a little to the northwest of Lanuvium, and nearer Rome. It is now La Riccia. According to Strabo, Aricia itself was situate on the Appian Way, but its citadel was placed on a hill above. The latter site answers to the position of the modern town. The distance between this place and Rome was fifteen miles. Diana had a sacred grove, temple, and lake not far from this place. The lake is now called Lago di Nemi. bo tells us that the worship of Diana here resembled that paid to the goddess in the Tauric Chersonese, and that the priest of the temple was obliged to defend himself by force of arms against all who aspired to the office, for whosoever could slav him succeeded to the dignity. The country around Aricia was remarkable for fertility and beauty.

3. Alba Longa, a short distance to the north of Aricia, and one of the most ancient cities of Latium. The old fabulous

traditions of ancient Rome speak of the city of Alba as being founded by Ascanius, son of Æneas, about four hundred years before the foundation of Rome itself. They also give a succession of kings of Alba, from Ascanius down to Numitor, grandfather of Romulus. But this story evidently cannot be regarded as historical. The truth is, that Alba was a considerable city anterior to Rome, and the centre of a confederation distinct from that of the Latins, but connected with it. The site of this ancient city has been much contested by topographers. The ancient account makes it to have been situated on the declivity of the Alban Mount, midway between the summit and the Lacus Albānus, each of these serving as a defence to the city; and hence many have supposed it to coincide with the modern village of Palazzolo. Sir W. Gell, however, after a careful examination, decides in favor of a long ridge higher up the ascent, and makes the city to have been scarcely fifty yards broad, but to have stretched in a long line for more than Hence the name given to the city, the first part, Alba, referring to the high, precipitous rocks on which it was founded. and the latter part, Longa, to its lengthened appearance. city, according to Livy, was destroyed by Tullus Hostilius, and the inhabitants were removed to Rome; but Niebuhr has strong doubts about the time as well as the manner in which Alba was destroyed; and it appears that the territory of Alba was taken possession of in the first place by the Latins, and not by Rome; A second town was built afterward by Roman colonists in the time of the first emperors. This second Alba is mentioned by Suetonius in his life of Nero. The modern town of Albano is at the foot of the mountain, and does not, of course, answer to the ancient site. The Mons Albanus is now Monte Cavo. The Lacus Albanus has been already mentioned (page 266).

4. Bövillæ, an ancient town on the Appian Way, between the ninth and tenth mile-stones, and answering now to the situation of the inn called L'Osteria delle Frattochie. At no great distance from Bovillæ was the source of the Aqua Ferentina, distinguished in the early annals of Latium as the place where the confederate cities assembled in public council. Near Bovillæ, also, the rencounter took place between Milo and Clodius, which ended in the death of the latter. 5. Tuscülum, on the

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summit of the ridge of hills which forms the continuation of the Alban Mount, and above the modern town of Frascati. The ruins themselves bear the name of Il Tuscolo. The foundation of this place is ascribed in the legends of the poets to Telegonus, the son of Ulysses and Circe. Strabo says that on the side toward Rome, the hills of Tusculum were covered with villas. Of these, the one most interesting for us was the villa of Cicero, giving name to the beautiful moral Disputations, which were probably written there, Tusculānæ Disputationes, or "Tusculan Disputations." The villa itself was called Tusculānum. 6. Algidum, to the southeast of Tusculum, and often mentioned in the early history of Rome as a favorite station of the Æqui in their predatory incursions on the Roman territory. We must distinguish, however, between this town and the Mount Algidus. The latter appears to have been that chain which stretches from the rear of the Alban Mount, and is parallel to the Tusculan hills, being separated from them by the valley along which runs the Via Latina. The woods of the bleak Algidus are a favorite theme with Horace.

7. Gābii, to the northeast of Tusculum, on the Via Pranestina, and about one hundred stadia from Rome. Its site corresponds to the modern Osteria del Pantano. Gabii is said to have been a colony of Alba, and an obscure tradition represented it as the place in which Romulus and Remus were brought up. The artful manner in which Tarquinius Superbus obtained possession of Gabii, after he had failed in the attempt by force of arms, is well known, as recorded by Livy. According to the same historian, the Gauls received their final defeat from Camillus near this city. This place suffered so much during the civil wars that it became entirely ruinous and deserted. It revived, however, under Antoninus and Commodus, and became a thriving town. In its more flourishing days, Juno seems to have been held in peculiar honor at Gabii. The cinctus Gabinus was a peculiar mode of folding or girding the toga, in order to give more freedom to the person when in motion. The people of Gabii are said to have adopted it on a particular occasion, when hurrying to battle from a sacrifice. 8. Collātia, a little to the north of Gabii, and likewise a colony of Alba. It was celebrated in Roman history for the self-sacrifice of the chaste Lucretia. In Strabo's time it was a mere village.

The road which led to this place from Rome was called Via Collatina. The site of Collatia is generally supposed to agree with that of a place called Castel dell' Osa or Castelluccio. Gell, however, is in favor of Lunghezza. 9. Tibur, now Tivoli, to the northeast of Gabii, and on the banks of the Anio. According to Dionysius, it was a town of the Siculi; but others make it to have been founded by Catillus, son of Amphiaraus, who, with his two brothers, Coras and Tiburtus, migrated to Italy, and named the place after the latter. This legend refers, of course, to a Pelasgic origin. The Greek writers call the place τὰ Τίβουρα. Hercules was the deity held in greatest veneration at Tibur, and his temple, on which the Cathedral of Tivoli is built, was famous throughout Italy. Hence the epithet of "Herculean," given it by the poets. In the vicinity of Tibur dwelt one of the ancient sibyls, surnamed Albūnea. A beautiful little ruin still remains, called the Temple of the Sibyl, though others assign it to Vesta. The hero Tiburnus was also revered at Tibur, and had a grove consecrated to him on the banks of the Anio. Two illustrious captives of Rome both terminated their existence on the banks of the Anio, the Numidian Syphax, and Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, the former at Tibur. the latter in Hadrian's villa near that place.

10. Praneste, to the southeast of Tibur, and now Palestrina. Strabo describes it as having a citadel remarkable for its strength of position, standing on the brow of a lofty hill which overhung the city. The same author states that Præneste laid claim to a Greek origin, and had been named formerly Polystephanus (Πολυστέφανος). Pliny also observes that it was once called Stephane. From Dionysius we may infer that it was afterward colonized by Alba. The strength of Præneste rendered it a place of too great importance to be overlooked by the contending parties of Sylla and Marius. It was induced to join the cause of the latter, but suffered severely in consequence, a bloody massacre of the inhabitants having been made by the victorious troops of Sylla, and the place having been given up to plunder. It survived, however, these disasters, and gained new strength from a colony of those very troops which had inflicted so severe a blow upon it, so that it eventually became once more a flourishing city. Ælian, the writer of the "Various History," and also of the work "On Animals," was a native of this place. The Temple of Fortune in Præneste was very celebrated. Among the productions of the territory around this city, none are so often spoken of as its walnuts. 11. Sacriportus, near Præneste, and the place where the decisive action took place between the forces of Sylla and the younger Marius. 12. Pēdum, also in the vicinity of Præneste, and often named in the early wars of Rome. Its site answers to that of the modern Gallicano, according to Sir W. Gell. Others are in favor of Zagarolo. 13. Labīcum, about fifteen miles from Rome, between the Via Prænestina and the Via Latina. It was a colony of Alba. Cæsar had a villa in the Ager Labīcānus, where he resided not long before his death, since he is said by Suetonius to have made his will there the September previous to that event. The height on which the modern town of Colonna stands answers to the site of Labicum.

Having now described what may be considered as the Latin territory, strictly so called, we pass on to that portion of New Latium which bordered on the Æqui and Marsi, and was anciently possessed by the *Hernici* before it was included within the Latin limits.

HERNICI.

I. It was maintained by some of the ancient writers that the Hernici derived their name from the rocky nature of their country, herna in the Sabine dialect signifying "a rock;" others were of opinion that they were so called from Hernicus, a Pelasgic chief. The former etymology, however, is generally regarded as the more probable one, and it would lead us also to infer that the Hernici, as well as the Æqui and Marsi, were descended from the Sabines, or generally from the Oscan race.

II. There is nothing in the history of this petty nation which possesses any peculiar interest, or distinguishes them from their equally hardy and warlike neighbors. It is merely an account of the same ineffectual struggle to resist the systematic and overwhelming preponderance of Rome, and of the same final submission to her genius and fortune.

III. Among the Hernici we may notice the following places: 1. Anagnia, now Anagni, their principal city, which Virgil distinguishes by the epithet of "dives," and which Strabo terms an important city. It was colonized by Drusus. From Tacitus we learn that it was the birth-place of Valens, a general of Vitellius, and the chief supporter of his party. 2. Ferentinum, about eight miles beyond Anagnia, on the Via Latina. It is now Ferentino. This place appears to have originally be-

longed to the Volsei, but it was taken from them by the Romans and given to the Hernici. 3. Alātrium, further in the mountains, and more to the east, now Alatri. It is mentioned by Plautus, in his play of the Captives, under the Greek form ' $\lambda\lambda\acute{a}\tau\rho\iota\sigma\nu$.

VOLSCI.

I. Leaving the territory of the Hernici, we now enter on that of the Volsci, a nation whose history is known to us only from its connection with that of Rome. They were a branch of the Oscan race. Notwithstanding the small extent of country which they occupied, reaching only from Antium to Terracīna, a line of coast of about fifty miles, and little more than half that distance from the sea to the mountains, it swarmed with cities filled with a hardy race.

II. The Volsci were first attacked by the second Tarquin, and war was carried on afterward between the two nations, with short intervals, for upward of

two hundred years, until they were completely subdued.

III. Beginning from the northern extremity of their territory, we find, 1. Velitra, now Velletri. It was situate a little to the left of the Appian Way, and in a southeast direction from Alba Longa. Velitræ was always reckoned one of the most important and considerable cities of the Volsci, and was engaged in hostilities with Rome as early as the reign of Ancus Marcius. The chief boast of the place was the honor of having given birth to Augustus. 2. Cŏriŏli, to the southwest of Velitræ. A hill now called Monte Giove is thought to represent its site. It was by the capture of this town that C. Marcius obtained the surname of Coriolanus. 3. Ulubra, in the plain, at no great distance from Velitræ. Its marshy situation is plainly alluded to by Cicero, who calls the inhabitants little frogs. Horace and Juvenal give us but a wretched idea of the place. 4. Satrīcum, between Velitræ and Antium. It was taken by Coriolanus, retaken and burned by the Latins, but restored by the Antiates. It fell again, however, into the hands of the Romans, who destroyed it because it had joined the Samnites.

5. Antium, a celebrated city on the coast, the ruins of which are still called Porto d'Anzo. The city, however, must have reached as far as the modern town of Nettuno, which derives its name probably from some ancient temple dedicated to Neptune. Antium was fabled to have been founded by Anthias, a son of Circe. It was a maritime place of note at a very early period, and its inhabitants were addicted to piracy. It was to this city that Coriolanus retired after his banishment,

and here, too, he ended his days. The Antiates were finally conquered by the Romans in a battle near the River Astura, on which occasion the Romans destroyed most of their ships, reserving the beaks to adorn the elevated seat in the Forum at Rome, from which orators addressed the people, and which thenceforth was designated by the name of Rostra. Antium now received a fresh supply of colonists, and from that period enjoyed a state of quiet, till the civil wars of Marius and Sylla, when it was nearly destroyed by the former. But it rose again from its ruins during the empire, and attained to a high degree of prosperity and splendor. In Strabo's time it was the favorite residence of the emperor and his court, and here Augustus received from the senate the title of Father of his country. Antium became successively the residence of Tiberius and Caligula. It was also the birth-place of Nero, who, having recolonized it, built a port there, and bestowed upon it various other marks of his favor. Hadrian also is said to have been particularly fond of this city. Antium contained two temples of celebrity, one sacred to Fortune, and the other to Æsculapius. The famous Apollo Belvedere, the fighting gladiator, and many other statues discovered at Antium, attest also its former magnificence.

6. Circeii, a short distance inland from the Promontorium Circeium, probably on the site of the village of San Felice, where some ruins are said to be visible. The celebrated enchantress Circe was fabled to have dwelt in this vicinity. A Roman military colony was sent to this place in the reign of Tarquinius Superbus, which shows it to have been a town of importance at that period. It was still extant in Cicero's time, who says that Circe was worshipped there. Lepidus was exiled to this place by Augustus. It was famous for its oysters.

We must return to the Appian Way in order to describe some places situated on this celebrated road or in its vicinity. Pursuing this route, we come to, 1. Tres Täbernæ, a station about seven miles from Aricia, on this Way, and where it was joined by a cross-road from Antium. This place is mentioned by St. Paul in the account of his journey to Rome. 2. Förum Appii, sixteen miles further on the Appian Way, also mentioned by St. Paul, and well known as Horace's second resting-place in his journey to Brundisium. D'Anville inclines to place

it at Borgo Lungo, near Treponti. It was usual here to embark on a canal, which ran parallel to the Appian Way, and which was called Decennovium, from its length being nineteen miles. Vestiges of this canal may still be traced a little beyond Borgo Lungo. It was made by Augustus, who endeavored by this and other means to drain the Pontine Marshes. Strabo says that travellers took the canal during the night, and in the morning were landed near Tarracina. This canal was enlarged by Nero, who had formed a project for uniting the Lake Avernus with the Tiber. For an account of the Pontine Marshes, the student is referred to the close of this article on the geography of Latium.

3. About three miles before reaching Tarracina we come to the grove and fountain of Fērōnia, the scene of Horace's ablutions, in his account of the journey to Brundisium. There was here a temple also dedicated to the same goddess. In this temple was a seat on which slaves received their freedom. Leaving this spot, we reach, 4. Tarrācīna, called, also, Anxur, the latter being probably its Volscian name. We learn from Horace that this city stood on a lofty rock, at the foot of which the modern Terracina is situated. According to Strabo, the place was first named Trachīna, a Greek appellation indicative of the ruggedness of its situation. Tarracina subsequently became of consequence as a naval station. The poets invariably call it Anxur. The Emperor Galba was born in a village near it.

Some places yet remain to be noticed in that mountainous tract which stretches from the neighborhood of Præneste, and, running nearly south, meets the sea at Tarracina. This is the chain from which the rivers that cause the stagnation of waters in the Pontine district derive their source. It is called Mons Lepīnus by Columella. In its most northern extremity was, 1. Signia, now Segni, which became a Roman colony as early as the reign of Tarquinius Superbus. At first it was only a military post, but afterward became a city. It was noted for a particular mode of flooring with bricks, which was called the "Opus Signīnum." 2. Cōra, somewhat to the south, and a place of great antiquity, which has preserved its name unchanged to this day. Virgil makes it a colony of Alba. It suffered greatly during the contest with Spartācus, having been taken and sacked by one of his wandering bands. Propertius

and Lucan speak of it as the seat of ruin and desolation. 3. Norba, somewhat to the south of Cora, and on the same ridge of hills. It is now a small place called Norma. Having espoused the party of Marius, it suffered severely in consequence, and the place being at length betrayed into the hands of Lepidus, one of Sylla's generals, the inhabitants chose rather to perish by their own hands than become the victims of a bloody conqueror. 4. Sētia, to the southeast of Norba, now Sezza. Martial makes frequent mention of the wine of this place. 5. Prīvernum, to the east of Setia. Its site is marked by the modern Piperno. Virgil makes mention of it as a Volscian city, and the birth-place of his heroine Camilla. Strabo, however, seems to consider the Privernātes as a distinct people from the Volsci. Frontinus classes it among the military colonies.

6. Frusino, to the northeast of Privernum, on the Via Latina, and now Frosinone. This town was deprived of its territory by the Romans for having incited the Hernici to war. 7. Fregella, to the southeast of Frusino, near the Liris, and close to the Via Latina. It belonged first to the Sidicini, and successively to the Volsci and Samnites. Pyrrhus took this place when he was advancing against Rome; and it also suffered severely in its territory from the ravages of Hannibal's troops. Its ruins are to be seen at the small town of Ceperano, on the right bank of the Garigliano. 8. Fābrātēria, to the south of Fregellæ, on the Via Latina, now Falvaterra. 9. Sora, to the northeast of Fregellæ, and still preserving its name. The earliest writer who has mentioned this place is Plautus, in his play of the Captives. If we now cross the Liris, and follow the course of that river on its left bank, we shall soon arrive at its junction with the Fibrenus, a stream well known from the little island which it forms before its junction with the Liris. This island belonged to Cicero, and here is laid the scene of his dialogues with Atticus and his brother Quintus on legislation. He himself was born there. It has taken the name of San Domenico Abate. 10. Arpinum, somewhat to the south of this island, and now Arpino. It was memorable for having given birth to Marius and Cicero, the latter having been born, as just remarked, in its immediate vicinity. 11. Atina, to the southeast of Arpinum, and one of the most ancient cities of the

Volsei. Virgil applies the epithet "potens" to it. 12. Aquinum, to the east of Fabrateria, on the Via Latina, and now Aquino. It was the birth-place of Juvenal, and of the Emperor Pescennius Niger, and in more modern times of the celebrated Thomas Aquinas. It was famous for its purple dye. 13. Casinum, the last town of Latium on the Via Latina, and a large and populous place. Its site is now partly occupied by the modern town of San Germano. According to Varro, its name was derived from Cascum, an Osean word answering to the Latin vetus.

Resuming now the description of the Latin coast from Tarracina, we come to, 1. Fundi, now Fondi, situate somewhat inland, on the Appian Way, and near a small lake called Lacus Fundānus. It obtained at the end of the Latin war the privileges of a Roman city, except the right of voting, for having always allowed a free passage to the Roman troops in their marches into Campania. It received the right of voting subsequently, A.U.C. 564, and its citizens were enrolled in the Æmilian tribe. It was, at a later period, colonized by the veteran soldiers of Augustus. 2. Amyclæ, to the southwest of Fundi, and situate on the coast. It gave name to the adjacent gulf. It was of Greek origin, as is said, and strange tales were told concerning the manner of its destruction. According to some accounts, it was infested and finally rendered desolate by serpents. Another tradition represented the fall of Amyclæ as having been the result of the silence enjoined by law on its inhabitants, in order to put a stop to the false rumors of hostile attacks which had so frequently been circulated. The enemy at last, however, really appeared, and, finding the town in a defenceless state, destroyed it. This latter account was in general acceptation with the poets. The neighboring district was the Cacubus Ager, so celebrated for the excellence of its wine. According to Pliny, the cultivation of the vine in this quarter was greatly injured by a canal cut in this vicinity by Nero.

3. Caiēta, to the southeast, on the coast, and fabled to have been named from the nurse of Æneas, who died and was interred here. According to Strabo, however, some Spartans, having settled on this coast, named this place Καtαττα, a word which in their dialect signified "a cave," in allusion to the receding of

The harbor of Caieta was one of the finest and most commodious in Italy. The modern name of the place is Gaeta. 4. Formiæ, now Mola di Gaeta, to the north of the preceding, and the fabled abode and capital of the Læstrygones, spoken of by Homer in his Odyssey. Formiæ was a Laconian colony, and its first appellation was Hormiæ, in allusion to the excellent anchorage which its port afforded to vessels (ὅρμος, "a roadstead," "an anchorage"). This place is chiefly interesting from its having been long a favorite residence of Cicero, who had a villa here, which he commonly terms his Formianum, and at other times his Caietan villa. He appears to have resided here during the most turbulent part of the civil war between Cæsar and Pompey, and here, also, his existence was terminated by the assassins sent by Antony. In the reign of Augustus we find Formiæ distinguished as the birth-place and residence of Mamurra, a Roman senator of enormous wealth, acquired by great rapacity, and hence Horace, in the narrative of his journey to Brundisium, calls it contemptuously "the city of the Mamurræ" (Mamurrarum urbs). The Formian hills are often extolled for the superior wine which they produced.

5. Minturna, now Minturne, about nine miles further, on the Appian Way, situate on the Liris, and only three or four miles from its mouth. It is chiefly known in connection with the history of Marius, who, in endeavoring to escape into Africa, was forced to put in at the mouth of the Liris. Having no other resource left, he plunged into the neighboring marshes, but was discovered, dragged out, and thrown into a dungeon at Minturnæ. He was finally released, however, and furnished with a vessel to carry him to Africa. The grove and temple of Marica, fabled to have been the mother of Latinus, and by others thought to have been Circe, were close to Minturnæ. 6. Sinuessa, the last town in New Latium, situate close to the sea, and founded, as is said, on the ruins of Sinope, an ancient Greek city. Strabo says that Sinuessa stood on the shore of the Sinus Setinus, and derived its name from this circumstance. The site of this place now answers to the rock of Monte Dragone.

ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF LATIUM.

These form a group to the number of three, distant about twenty miles to the south of the Circeian Promontory. The nearest to the land is Sinonia, now Senone. A second, more to the west, is Palmaria, now Palmaruola. The third, which was the most populous, and is the largest of the group, is Pontia, now Ponza. It received a Roman colony, and obtained the thanks of the Roman senate for its zeal and fidelity in the second Punic war. It became afterward the spot to which the victims of Tiberius and Caligula were secretly conveyed, to be afterward dispatched, or doomed to a perpetual exile. Among these might be numbered many Christian martyrs.

ROMAN WAYS THROUGH LATIUM.

In describing the chief Roman roads which traversed Latium, we shall notice them in their order, as they severally branched off from Rome, their common centre.

- 1. Via Ostiensis, leading, as its name implies, to Ostia. It commenced at the Porta Trigĕmĭna, or, if we take a later period, at the Porta Ostiensis, now Porta San Paolo.
- 2. Via Laurentīna, branching off from the Via Ostiensis, about two miles from Rome, and terminating at Laurentum. We have no account of this Roman way in the Itineraries, but we learn its existence from Ovid.
- 3. Via Ardeātīna, evidently intended to establish a communication with Ardea, distant about twenty miles from Rome.
- 4. Via Appia, the most celebrated of all the Roman roads, both on account of its length and the difficulties which it was necessary to overcome in its construction. It was made by the censor Appius Claudius Cæcus, A.U.C. 442, B.C. 311, and in the first instance was only laid down as far as Capua, a distance of about one thousand stadia, or one hundred and twenty-five Roman miles. But even this portion of the work, according to the account of Diodorus Siculus, was constructed in so expensive a manner that it exhausted the public treasury. From Capua this road was subsequently carried on to Beneventum, and finally to Brundisium, when this port became the great place of resort for those who were desirous of crossing over into Greece and Asia Minor. This latter part of the Appian Way is supposed to have been constructed by the consul Appius Claudius Pulcher, grandson of Cæcus, A.U.C. 504, and to have been completed by another consul of the same family thirty-six years after. We find frequent mention made of repairs done to this road by the Roman emperors, and more particularly by Trajan, both in the histories of the time, and also in ancient inscriptions. This road seems to have been still in excellent order in the time of Procopius, who gives a very good account of the manner in which it was constructed. He says, "An expeditious traveller may very well perform the journey from Rome to Capua in five days. Its breadth is such as to admit of two carriages passing each other. Above all others, this is worthy of notice, for the stones which were employed on it are of an extremely hard nature, and were doubtless conveyed by Appius from some distant quarry, as the adjoining country furnishes none of that kind. These, when they had been cut smooth and squared, he fitted together closely, without using iron or any other substance, and they adhere so firmly to each other that they appear to have been thus formed by nature, and not cemented by art; and, though they have been

travelled over by so many beasts of burden and carriages for ages, yet they do not seem to have been any wise moved from their place, or broken, nor to have lost any part of their original smoothness." According to Eustace, such parts of the Appian Way as have escaped destruction, show few traces of wear and decay after a duration of two thousand years. The same writer states the average breadth of the Appian Way at from eighteen to twenty-two feet.

5. Via Latīna, commencing at the Porta Capēna, and falling into the Via Appia at Benēventum. Of its formation we have no account, but it was certainly of great antiquity, and existed probably before the Romans had conquered Latium.

6. Via Lavicāna, so called from its passing close to the ancient city of Lavicum, and communicating with the Via Latina.

7. Via Pranestina, like the Via Lavicana, issued from the Porta Esquilina, and fell into the Via Latina.

PONTINE MARSHES.

I. Pontīnæ, Pometīnæ, or Pomtīnæ Palūdes, a marshy tract of country, in the territory of the Volsci, and deriving its name from the town of Suessa Pōmētia, destroyed by Tarquinius Superbus, and in whose vicinity it was situate, although no trace has been left to identify the precise spot on which this ancient city once stood. These fens are occasioned by the quantity of water carried into the plain by numberless streams, which rise at the foot of the adjacent mountains, and, for want of a sufficient declivity, creep sluggishly over the level space, and sometimes stagnate in pools, or lose themselves in the sands. Two rivers principally contributed to the formation of these marshes, the Ufens, now Uffente, and the Nymphæus, now the Ninfa. The flat and swampy tract spread to the foot of the Volscian mountains, and covered an extent of eight miles in breadth and thirty in length.

II. There is every appearance that the basin of the Pontine Marshes was once a gulf of the sea, which has been gradually filled up by alluvium from the mountains. The oldest historical records exhibit this tract as occupied by the Volsci, who had numerous towns here, some of which were situated in the most marshy part of the country. The region was evidently a very fertile one, for we read in Livy (iv., 25) that, in A.U.C. 322, the Romans, in a season of scarcity, sent to the Ager Pontinus for a supply of corn. In A.U.C. 367-8, the tribune L. Sicinus proposed a distribution of the lands of that district among the poorer citizens.

III. About 442 A.U.C., the censor Appius Claudius Cæcus constructed the Via Appia across the length of the Pontine region, the soil of which must have been then sufficiently compact to bear the great weight of the causeway. The level of the original ground on which it was constructed has been found to be about four feet above the sea-level, at a distance of twelve miles from the coast. But, on arriving at the foot of the rock of Feronia, Appius found that if he continued the road in a straight line, he must pass through a soft, marshy tract, and he was induced to deviate from the direct line in order to avail himself of the more solid ground which lay near the foot of Mons Lepīnus.

IV. At some period of the century and a half that followed the building of the Appian Way, the country seems to have undergone great deterioration, either from natural or civil causes, and to have become partly inundated, for we find the consul Cornelius Cethegus, in A.U.C. 592, applying himself to the draining of the marshes and restoring the land to cultivation, and it was then that new

towns arose on the ruins of the ancient towns of the Volsci, under the names of Tres Pontes or Tripontium, Ad Medias, &c.

V. The civil wars and the devastation which accompanied them again caused the hydraulic works of the Pontine Marshes to be neglected, until Augustus made or restored several canals, especially a navigable canal which followed the line of the Appian Way, and to which we have heretofore referred in our account of Forum Appii (on page 330). Nerva and Trajan restored parts of the Appian Way which had sunk, and the latter drained the country from Tripontium to Tarracina. During the convulsions of the following centuries the marshes were again overflowed, until again drained in the reign of Theodoric by Cæcilius Decius, a public-spirited individual, and apparently with good effect.

VI. After this epoch we know no more of the state of the country until the end of the thirteenth century, when Pope Boniface VIII., whose family, the Caetani, were feudal lords of Sermoneta and of the greater part of the Monti Lepini, constructed some works for the drainage of part of the marsh. Leo X. employed the engineer Giovanni Scotti to repair and enlarge the canal of Badino, which is the great outlet of the marshes. Sixtus V. constructed a lateral canal, nearly parallel to the Appian Way, which received the waters of the western part of the marshes, and carried them to the common estuary of Badi-The most important improvements, however, were made by Pius VI., and the work of effectual draining was very nearly completed, when the low state of the papal treasury, and the confusion resulting from the French revolutionary invasion, caused for a time a complete interruption. At the present day, all that has been done is to maintain the drainage in the state in which Pius VI. left it, by keeping the canals clear and the dikes in repair. The greater part of the plain is covered with rich pastures, in which are fed numerous herds of horned cattle, and other parts of it are sown with rice, wheat, and Indian corn, and afford rich crops. In the spring, before the great heats render the atmosphere unwholesome, it has the appearance of a most delightful region. But, except the post-stations along the high road, and some scattered huts here and there, there is no permanent population throughout the whole of the plain. The great estuary of Badino is between seventy and eighty feet wide; there is about four feet water over the bar, and nearly ten feet water inside of it, where boats find a safe anchorage.

9. CAMPANIA.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. Campānia is the ancient name of that part of the kingdom of Naples which is now called Terra di Lavoro. The word Campania is probably derived from campus, "a plain," in allusion to the level nature of the country.

II. Campania was bounded on the north and east by Samnium; on the west by Latium and the Mare Tyrrhēnum; on the south by the Mare Tyrrhenum; and on the southeast by Lucania. Before Latium had been extended beyond the Liris, that river formed the natural boundary of Campania in this quarter, but after this change in the limits of the two provin-

ces, the Massic Hills were considered as the boundary by which they were separated. The Apennines divided Campania from Samnium, and the River Silarus from Lucania.

(B.) HISTORICAL SKETCH OF CAMPANIA.

I. It is universally agreed that the first settlers in Campania, with whom history makes us acquainted, were the Oscans. The next in order who obtained possession of the country were the Tuscans. When the latter had effected the conquest of Campania, that province became the seat of a particular empire, and received the federal form of government, centred in twelve principal cities, which has already been noticed as a striking political feature in the history of the Etrurians.

II. Wealth and luxury, however, soon produced their usual effects on the conquerors of Campania, and they, in their turn, fell an easy prey to the attacks of the Samnites, and were compelled to admit these hardy warriors to share with them the possession and enjoyment of these sunny plains. This observation, however, applies more particularly to Capua and its district, which was surprised by a Samnite force.

III. It is from this period that we must date the origin of the Campanian nation, which appears to have been thus composed of Oscans, Tuscans, Samnites, and Greeks, the latter having formed, as we shall presently see, numerous colonies on these shores. About eighty years after, the Romans gladly seized the opportunity of adding so valuable a portion of Italy to their dominions, under the pretence of defending the Campanians against their former enemies, the Samnites.

IV. From this time Campania may be regarded as subject to Rome, if we except that short interval in which the brilliant successes of Hannibal withdrew its inhabitants from their allegiance, an offence which they were made to expiate by a punishment, the severity of which has few examples in the history, not of Rome only, but of nations.

V. The natural advantages of Campania, its genial climate and fertile soil, so rich in various productions, are a favorite theme with Latin writers, and elicit from them many an eloquent and animated tribute of admiration. Pliny styles it "Felix illa Campania, certamen humana voluptatis."

(C.) CITIES OF CAMPANIA.

Resuming the description of the coast from Sinuessa, the last maritime town of Latium, we come to, 1. Vulturnum, at the mouth of the River Vulturnus, and now Castel di Volturno. It was probably of Etrurian origin, but we do not find it named in history until it became a Roman colony, A.U.C. 558. According to Frontinus, a second colony was sent hither by Cæsar. 2. Liternum, further on, to the southeast, celebrated as the spot to which Scipio Africanus retired into voluntary exile, and where he is commonly said to have ended his days. It is supposed to correspond to Torre di Patria. The River Liternus or Clānius, now the Lagno, runs into the sea in its vi-

cinity. This stream is apt to stagnate near its entrance into the sea, and to form marshes, anciently known as the Pălus Literna, now Lago di Patria. In this vicinity, also, was the Gallināria Silva, which Juvenal mentions as a noted haunt of robbers and assassins. 3. Cūmæ, a few miles further on. situate on a rocky hill washed by the sea. Its Greek name was Κύμη, in Doric Κύμα. This city was founded at a very early period by a Greek colony from Chalcis in Eubœa, and hence it is commonly called by the poets the Euboic or Chalcidian city. The colonization of Cumæ at so early a period (1050 B.C., according to Eusebius) is a remarkable event, as showing the progress already made by the Greeks in the art of navigation, and proving also that they were then well acquainted with Italy. Strabo informs us that from its commencement the state of the colony was most flourishing. The fertility of the surrounding country, and the excellent harbors which the coast afforded, soon rendered it one of the most powerful cities of southern Italy, and enabled it to form settlements along the coast, and to send out colonies as far as Sicily. In the second Punic war it was attacked by Hannibal, but was successfully defended by Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus. It became a Roman colony under Augustus, but, owing to the superior attractions of Baiæ and Neapolis, it gradually declined from its former prosperity, and in Juvenal's time it appears to have been nearly deserted. Cumæ, however, still enjoyed great celebrity as the abode in early times of the oracular sibyl, who dwelt in a cavern of the rocky eminence on which the city stood.

4. Misēnum, a harbor, on the promontory of the same name, and which became, under Augustus, one of the first naval stations in the empire. We have already made mention of this in speaking of the promontory (page 254). 5. Bauli, on a hill commanding an extensive view of the sea, and thus forming one of the most attractive spots on the coast. Hortensius, the orator, had a villa and some remarkable fish-ponds here. According to tradition, Bauli was originally called Boaulia, from the circumstance of Hercules having landed here with the oxen of Geryon on his return from Spain. 6. Baiæ, celebrated as a favorite place of resort with the rich and luxurious Romans. It owed its celebrity not only to the beauty of its shores and the advantages of its climate, but also to the numerous warm

springs which burst forth at almost every step, and were considered to possess salutary properties for various disorders. Close to Baiæ was the Lucrine Lake, of which mention has already been made. Numerous villas graced the surrounding country, and many were likewise built on artificial moles projecting into the sea. Now, however, owing to earthquakes and inundations of the sea, this once charming spot is completely changed, and is a mere waste compared with what it once was. The modern name is Baia. The original appellation of Baiæ was Aquæ Cumānæ.

7. Portus Julius.—Of this harbor, constructed by Agrippa, we have already made mention (page 267). 8. Dicarchia, a short distance from the Lucrine Lake, and on the coast. When the Romans sent a colony to this place, they changed its Greek name to Puteŏli, probably from the number of its wells, or perhaps from the stench which was emitted by the sulphureous and aluminous springs in its neighborhood. Respecting the origin of the town, we learn from Strabo that it was at first the harbor of Cumæ, and hence we may fairly regard it as a colony of that city. It became, under the Romans, a naval station of considerable importance, and armies were sent thence to Spain. St. Paul landed here, and remained seven days at this place before he set forward on his journey by the Appian Way. The harbor of Puteoli was spacious, and of a peculiar construction, being formed of vast piles of mortar and sand, which, owing to the strongly-cementing properties of the latter material, became very solid and compact masses, and these being sunk in the sea, afforded secure anchorage for any number of vessels. Pliny also has remarked this quality of the sand in the neighborhood of Puteoli, which now goes by the name of Pozzolana. sand is, in fact, volcanic ashes, and when mixed with a small portion of lime, it quickly hardens, and this induration takes place even under water. This singular property of becoming petrified under water renders it peculiarly valuable as a cement in the erection of moles, and other buildings, in maritime situations. The modern name of Puteoli is Pozzuoli. Cicero had a villa between the Lucrine Lake and Puteoli, to which he gave the name of Academia, though he more generally terms it his Puteolanum.

Above Puteoli was a spot called Forum Vulcāni, from the

number of holes upon its surface, all emitting smoke and a sulphureous stench. It corresponds, probably, to the modern Solfaterra, about a mile above Pozzuoli. The district between Puteoli and Cumæ was sometimes called Leborīni Campi. The origin of this appellation is not known; but from it appears to have come the Terra di Lavoro of modern geography, corresponding to the ancient Campania.

9. Něāpolis, now Naples (in Italian, Napoli), and, according to the best authorities, a colony originally of Cumæ. One of its earlier names appears to have been Parthenope; or, at all events, this appellation is given to it by the poets, and is fabled to have been derived from the siren Parthenope, who was said to have been cast upon its shores. According to Strabo, the tomb of the siren was shown there in his time. An earlier name, however, resting upon better authority, is that of Palæpŏlis, or "The Old City," which occurs in Livy, where the historian is describing the first transactions which connected the history of this city with that of Romc. This name of Palæpolis was changed, it would appear, to Neapolis, "The New City," in consequence of the increase of size which the place experienced on the accession of a new colony, composed of Chalcidians, Pithecusans, and Athenians. The indolence and luxury of Grecian manners attracted to Neapolis many a Roman whose age and temperament inclined them to a life of It was also distinguished for attachment to literary pursuits, as appears from the epithet docta applied to it by Martial.

The ridge of hills which separates the Bay of Naples from that of Pozzuoli was called $Pausil\bar{y}pus$, a name given it probably on account of its delightful situation and aspect, causing, as it were, sorrow to cease $(\pi a i\omega, \lambda i\pi \eta)$, and which rendered it the favorite residence of several noble and wealthy Romans. This hill, at a period unknown to us, was perforated by art to admit of a communication between Neapolis and Puteoli, not only for men and beasts of burden, but also for carriages. The modern name of the hill is Posilippo. On its slope, and just above the entrance of the perforated passage, lies what popular tradition makes to be the tomb of Virgil. It is in the form of a small, square, flat-roofed building, placed on a sort of platform, near the brow of a precipice on one side, and on the other

sheltered by a superincumbent rock. Cluverius and Addison, however, place Virgil's tomb on the other side of Naples, near the foot of Mount Vesuvius.

10. Herculāneum, or, as Cicero writes it, Herculānum, the situation of which is no longer doubtful since the discovery of its ruins. It lay on the coast below Neapolis, at a distance from it of six miles, and the modern villages of Portici and Resina are built over part of it. Herculaneum is said to have been founded by Hercules; it was, in all probability, of Pelasgian origin, but its history is obscure, and it never attained to any importance. Being situated close to the sea, on elevated ground, it was exposed to the southwest wind, and from that circumstance was reckoned particularly healthy. In the time of Titus, A.D. 79, it was overwhelmed by that memorable eruption of Vesuvius which also ruined Pompeii. It appears to have been buried under showers of ashes, subsequently overflowed by streams of lava, and is stated to be seventy feet below the present surface of the ground. It was rediscovered by the sinking of a well in 1713, when several antiquities were found. Subsequent excavations were made by the Neapolitan government, and a magnificent collection, not only of statues, and paintings, and vases, but of domestic implements of every kind, has been deposited in the Royal Museum at Portici. excavations, however, are by no means as extensive as those at Pompeii, for it being found impossible to remove the incumbent soil in consequence of its thickness, as fast as one part was thoroughly searched it was filled up with rubbish from another. A small part of the theatre is all that is now accessible. Great expectations were excited by the discovery of a large number of manuscripts written on rolls of papyrus. The attempts to unroll these have hitherto had but very imperfect success, and those of which the subjects have been ascertained are of little interest.

Mount Vēsūvius, of which mention has been made in the preceding paragraph, appears to have been at first known under the name of Vesēvus, although the appellations of Vesvius and Vesbius are also frequently applied to it. Strabo describes this mountain as extremely fertile at its base, but entirely barren toward the summit, which was mostly level, and full of apertures and cracks, seemingly produced by the action of fire;

whence Strabo was led to conclude that the volcano, though once in a state of activity, had been extinguished from want of fuel. Diodorus Siculus represents it also as being in a quiescent state, since he argues from its appearance, at the time he was writing, that it must have been on fire at some remote period. The volcano was likewise apparently extinct when, as Plutarch and Florus relate, Spartacus, with some of his followers, sought refuge in the cavities of the mountain from the pursuit of their enemies, and succeeded in eluding their search. It was in the reign of Titus, August 24th, A.D. 79, that the first eruption on record took place, when the cities of Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabiæ were buried under showers of volcanic sand, stones, and scoriæ. Such was the immense quantity of volcanic sand (called ashes) thrown out during this eruption, that the whole country was involved in pitchy darkness; and, according to Dio Cassius, the ashes fell in Egypt, Syria, and various parts of Asia Minor. This eruption proved fatal, also, to the elder Pliny, who commanded at the time the Roman fleet at Misenum, and having, through curiosity, visited the burning mountain, was suffocated by the sulphureous vapor. After this Vesuvius continued a burning mountain for nearly a thousand years, having eruptions at intervals. The fire then appeared to become nearly extinct, and continued so from the beginning of the twelfth to that of the sixteenth century. Since the eruption of 1506, it has remained burning to the present time, with eruptions of lava and ashes at intervals.

11. Pompeii or Pompeia (the first being the Latin, the second the Greek form of its name), situate about thirteen miles southeast of Neapolis, in a plain at the foot of Vesuvius, through which ran the little river Sarnus, now Sarno. The city appears to have been once close to the sea, but is now nearly two miles from it, in consequence of the physical changes which have taken place in this district. It stood on an eminence formed by a bed of lava, which seems to have been thrown up from the ground in this spot, and in several other places round the foot of Vesuvius, long before any of the eruptions recorded in history. Like Herculaneum, it was fabled to have been founded by Hercules, but, like that place, was probably of Pelasgian origin. We find it occupied in succession by the Oscans, Etruscans, Samnites, and Romans. In the Social War

(B.C. 90) it joined the Marsian confederacy along with the other towns of Campania, but escaped without any severe punishment. It became at this period a military colony, and other colonies were subsequently sent by Augustus and Nero. In the reign of the latter, a bloody affray occurred at Pompeii, during the exhibition of a fight of gladiators, between the inhabitants of that place and those of Nuceria, in which many lives were lost. The Pompeiani were, in consequence, deprived of these shows for ten years, and several individuals were banished. Shortly after we hear of the destruction of a considerable portion of the city by an earthquake. The following year, while Nero was singing at Naples, another earthquake occurred. At last, in A.D. 79, in the month of August, the first recorded eruption of Vesuvius took place, which overwhelmed this city, and along with it Herculaneum and Stabiæ. In 1689, the first indications of ruins protruding above the ground were noticed. In 1755 the excavations began. They have been interrupted and resumed at various times, and the result has been that about a fourth part of the city has been excavated and cleared of the rubbish. For an account of the discoveries made at Pompeii, the student is referred to Gell's elaborate work on the subject.

The River Sarnus, now the Sarno, falls into the sea about a mile from Pompeii. This river, according to Strabo, formed the harbor of that town, which was also common to the inland cities of Nōla, Acerræ, and Nūcĕria. The Pelasgi, who inhabited this coast at an early period, are said to have derived the name of Sarrastes from this river.

12. Stābiæ, about two miles beyond the Sarnus, and in the southeastern angle of the Bay of Naples. It is now Castelamare di Stabia. This was once a place of note, but having been destroyed by Sylla during the civil wars, it became subsequently a mere village, and a part of the old site was occupied by villas and pleasure grounds. It was overwhelmed along with Herculaneum and Pompeii. According to Columella, this spot was celebrated for its fountains, and such was the excellence of the pastures in its immediate vicinity, that the milk of this district was reputed to be more wholesome and nutritious than that of any other country. 13. Surrentum, to the southwest, now Sorrento, celebrated in modern times as the

birth-place of Tasso, and admired for the exquisite beauty of its scenery and the salubrity of its climate. This city is said to have been of very ancient date, and to have derived its name from the Sirens, who are fabled to have made this coast their favorite haunt, and who had here a temple consecrated to them. The wine of the Surrentine Hills was held in great estimation by the ancients.

It will now be necessary to retrace our steps as far as the northern frontiers of Campania, in order to enter upon the description of the interior of that province. It has been stated that the Massic Hills, the ancient Mons Massicus, formed its boundary of separation from Latium. This celebrated range is entirely detached from the chain of the Apennines, and extends from the sea in the immediate vicinity of Monte Dragone, the ancient Sinuessa, in a northerly direction, till it unites with the hills of Sessa, the ancient Suessa Auruncorum, being a distance of about ten miles in length, while its breadth scarcely equals three. The Latin poets are lavish in their encomiums on the excellence of the wine produced by this celebrated ridge. To the north of the Massic Hills, and on the left bank of the Liris, we find the Aurunci, who once occupied a more extensive territory in Latium; but, on being expelled thence by the Roman arms, they retired to the mountainous tracts about Sessa and Rocca Monfina. Among their cities we may name, 1. Suessa Auruncorum, now Sessa, the capital of the race, after their former capital, Aurunca, had been destroyed by the neighboring Sidicini. It became a Roman colony and a municipium. 2. Aurunca, the earlier capital, as just remarked. Some vestiges of it may still be seen near the church of Santa Croce, on the elevated ridge in the vicinity of Rocca Monfina.

To the east of the Aurunci were the Sidicini, once apparently an independent people, but afterward included under the common name of Campāni. They were of Oscan origin. The only town which antiquity ascribes to them is Teānum, now Teano, about six miles to the east of Suessa, and fifteen to the northwest of Capua. Strabo informs us that it stood on the Latin Way, and was inferior to Capua alone among the Campanian cities in extent and importance. It became a Roman colony under Augustus.

Resuming our account of the cities of Campania, we come

to, 1. Venafrum, now Venafri, the last city to the north, and near the River Vulturnus. It was situate on the Latin Way, and was much celebrated in antiquity for the excellence of the oil which its territory produced. 2. To the southeast of Teanum, and also on the Latin Way, we find Căles, now Calvi, and anciently a considerable city. The territories of Cales and Teanum were separated by two temples dedicated to Fortune, one on the right, the other on the left of the Latin Way. The Calenian territory was much celebrated for its vineyards, and was contiguous to the famous Falernian district, or Fălernus Ager, so well known for producing the finest wine in Italy, or, indeed, in the ancient world. Without pretending to fix the limits of this favored portion of Campania with scrupulous accuracy, it seems evident, from the testimony of Livy and Pliny, that we must regard it as extending from the Massic Hills to the Vulturnus. That part of the district which grew the choicest wine was distinguished by the name of Faustianus, being that of a village about six miles from Sinuessa. We find the name of Amineæ also given to some vineyards in this vi-Macrobius, indeed, states that there was a people called cinity. Aminei.

3. Căsilinum, to the southeast of Cales, on the Appian Way, celebrated in history for the obstinate defence which it made against Hannibal after the battle of Cannæ. The modern Capua is generally supposed to occupy its site. 4. Căpŭa, to the southeast of Casilinum, once the capital of Campania, and inferior to Rome alone among the cities of Italy. Its original name was Vulturnus, which was changed by the Tuscans, when they became masters of the place, to Capua, calling it after their leader Capys, who, according to Festus, had received this appellation from his feet being deformed and turned inward. Capua was the chief city of the southern Etrurians, and, even after it fell under the Roman dominion, continued to be a powerful and flourishing place. Before Capua passed into the hands of the Romans, a dreadful massacre of its Etrurian inhabitants by the Samnites put the city into the hands of this latter people. Livy appears to have confounded this event with the origin of the place when he makes its name to have been changed from Vulturnus to Capua, after a Samnite leader Capys. Capua deeply offended the Romans by opening its gates to Hannibal after the

battle of Cannæ. The vengeance inflicted by the Romans was of the most fearful nature, when, five years after, the city again fell under their dominion. Most of the senators and principal inhabitants were put to death, the greater part of the remaining citizens were sold into slavery, and by a decree of the senate the Capuani ceased to exist as a people. Julius Cæsar sent a powerful colony to Capua, and under the emperors it again flourished. But it suffered greatly from the barbarians in a later age, so much so, in fact, that the Bishop Landulfus, and the Lombard Count Lando, transferred the inhabitants to Casilinum. This last, as already remarked, is the site of modern Capua. The ruins of ancient Capua are about two miles to the southeast of the modern city, and close to the church of Santa Maria di Capoa. About a mile to the east of Capua rose Mons Tifāta, a branch of the Apennines, which now takes its name of *Maddaloni* from a village near *Caserta*. This ridge is often noticed by Livy as a favorite position of Hannibal when in the vicinity of Capua.

5. Atella, to the south of Capua, and the ruins of which are still to be seen near the village of Sant' Elpidio or Sant' Arpino, about two miles from the town of Aversa. It is known to have been an Oscan city, and it has acquired some importance in the history of Roman literature from the circumstance of the name and origin of the Fābulæ Atellanæ being derived from this place. Atella, having joined the Carthaginians, was, in consequence, subsequently reduced by the Romans to a præfecture. It was afterward colonized by Augustus. 6. Acerræ, to the southeast of Atella, and at the sources of the Clanius. It is now Acerra. This place is spoken of by Virgil as exposed to inundations from the neighboring stream, and therefore thinly inhabited (vacuæ). 7. Nola, to the east of Acerræ, and one of the most ancient and important cities of Campania. Its origin is ascribed by some to the Ausones, by others to the Tuscans or the Chalcidians, which means, probably, that it successively fell into the hands of these three communities. It was afterward occupied by the Samnites, until they were driven out by the Romans. It was a strongly fortified place, and resisted all the efforts of Hannibal after the battle of Cannæ, being defended by Marcellus. It was burned to the ground in the Social War, but arose subsequently from its ruins, and was again

ranked among the cities of Campania. Here Augustus breathed his last, in the same house and chamber in which his father Octavius had ended his days. Nola was colonized in the reign of Vespasian. 8. Abella, to the northeast of Nola, and the ruins of which still exist at Avella Vecchia. Virgil speaks of it as abounding in fruit, particularly apples. 9. Nūcēria, to the southeast of Nola, now Nocera de' Pagani. It was situate on the Sarnus, and had the appellation of Alfaterna attached to its name, to distinguish it from some other places of the same name. It was sacked and burned by Hannibal. In the reign of Nero it was restored and colonized.

South of Campania, properly so called, were the *Picentīni*, who occupied an inconsiderable extent of territory from the *Promontorium Minervæ* to the mouth of the River *Silūrus*. We learn from Strabo that they were a portion of the inhabitants of Picenum, whom the Romans transplanted thither to people the shores of the *Sinus Pæstānus*. According to the same writer, the *Picentini* were, at a subsequent period, compelled to abandon the few towns which they possessed, and to reside in villages and hamlets, in consequence of having sided with Hannibal in the second Punic war. As a further punishment, they were excluded from military service, and allowed only to perform the duties of couriers and messengers.

On the south side of the promontory of Surrentum, or Minerva, were three small rocks, detached from the land, called Sirēnūsæ Insulæ, and formerly celebrated as the islands of the Sirens. They are now called Galli. Continuing along the coast, we find, 1. Marcina, founded, as Strabo reports, by the Tuscans, but subsequently occupied by the Samnites. Its site answers to the modern Vietri. 2. Sălernum, a short distance to the northeast of the preceding, and said to have been built by the Romans as a check on the Picentini. It was not, therefore, situated, like the modern town of Salerno, close to the sea, but on the heights above, where considerable remains have been observed. Salernum became a Roman colony seven years after the conclusion of the second Punic war. 3. Picentia, southeast of Salernum, and distant seven miles from it. This was once the capital of the Picentini. It is now Vicenza or Bicenza, on the little river Bicentino.

ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF CAMPANIA.

- 1. Pandătāria, now Vandotina, assigned by some, less correctly, to Latium. Julia, the daughter of Augustus, was banished to this island, as were also the elder Agrippina, and Octavia, the wife of Nero.
- 2. Ænāria, called, also, Inarīme and Pithecūsa. The first name was the most common, and the best authenticated, and refers probably to the copper (as) found in it. The second, Inarime, is only found in the poets, and appears to be formed from Homer's είν 'Αρίμοις (Il., 2, 783). For it would seem, from an examination of various passages, that Virgil, and after him the other Latin poets, have applied to this island more particularly Homer's description of the place of torment allotted to the earth-born Typhoeus. It is very uncertain, however, what people or country Homer intended to designate by the name of Arimi. The name Pithecusa, the third one of those mentioned above, is generally supposed to mean "Ape Island," from the great number of these animals which the island is said to have contained at an early period. In Greek, $\pi i\theta \eta \kappa \sigma \varsigma$ means "an ape." Pliny, however, says that the island took its name, not from apes, but from the number of earthen wine-jars ($\pi i\theta o \iota$) which were made there, and used as casks. Sometimes the name is written in the plural, Pithecusa, and then the adjacent island of Prochyta, now Procida, is included along with Enaria. We are informed by Strabo that Ænaria was first occupied by a colony of Eretrians and Chalcidians, which flourished for a time on account of the fertility of the soil, and the wealth produced by the discovery of some gold mines. A sedition, however, having disturbed the tranquillity of the colony, the Chalcidians were the first to abandon the island; and not long after the Eretrians followed their example, being alarmed by repeated earthquakes, and the bursting out of fire and hot springs, attended by irruptions of the sea. The same causes compelled another colony, sent by Hiero, king of Syracuse, to quit their settlement and a town which they had built. Strabo ascribes to these volcanic phenomena all the fabulous accounts of the poets respecting Typhoeus. He further quotes the historian Timæus, who related that, a little before his time, Mons Epōpěus, now sometimes called Epomeo, but more commonly Monte San Nicolo, burst forth with such fury that the sea retired from the island to the distance of three stadia, but that on its return it deluged the island and extinguished the volcano. The inhabitants of the opposite coast were so alarmed that they fled into the interior of Campania.
- 3. Nēsis, between Puteŏli and Neapŏlis, and within a short distance of the shore. It is now Nisida. Cicero speaks of it as a favorite residence of his friend Brutus.
- 4. Caprēa, now Capri, near the promontory of Minerva, chiefly known in history as the residence of the Emperor Tiberius in the latter part of his life. Augustus was the first emperor who resided here, having given the Neapolitans the island of Ænaria, which belonged to him, in exchange for it. Tiberius was led to select it as his abode from its difficulty of access, being cut off from all approach, except on one side, by lofty and perpendicular rocks. The mildness of the climate, and the beauty of the prospect, which extends over the whole bay of Naples, might also, as Tacitus remarks, have influenced his choice. Here he caused twelve villas to be erected, which he is supposed to have named after the twelve chief deities. The ruins of the villa of Jove, which was the most conspicuous, and probably is the same with what Pliny styles the Arx Tiberii, are still to be seen on the summit of the cliff looking toward Sorrento.

This same writer computes the circuit of the island to be eleven miles. Strabo speaks of two small towns in this island, which probably answer to those of Capri and Anacapri at the present day.

10. SAMNIUM AND THE FRENTANI.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Samnium was called by the Greeks Σαυνῖτις, and the Samnites were styled by the same people Σαυνῖται. Festus derives the name of this people from the peculiar kind of javelin used by them, and which was called, in Greek, σαύνιον, but Samnium and Samnites are both historically and etymologically connected with the term Sabini.

II. Samnium was bounded on the north by the territory of the Frentāni; on the northeast and east by Apulia; on the south by the Picentīni and Lucania; and on the west by Latium and Campania.

• III. It is usual with geographers to regard the ancient Samnites as divided into three distinct tribes, the Caracēni, Pentri, and Hirpīni, to which others have added the Caudīni and Frentāni. But the former classification seems to rest on better authority, and may, therefore, be more safely adopted. The Caudini will be ranged with the Pentri, and the Frentani will be treated as a distinct people from the Samnites at the end of this section.

(B.) SKETCH OF SAMNITE HISTORY.

I. The Samnites are originally a colony of the Sabini, who migrate in remote times, probably before the building of Rome, to the banks of the *Vulturnus* and *Tamărus*, and thence spread on one side as far as the plains of *Apulia*, and on the other to those of *Campania*. They appear originally as an agricultural and pastoral people, and as their numbers increase beyond the means of subsistence, they follow the custom of their Sabine ancestors, and send forth colonies into the countries to the south.

II. The Samnites, between A.U.C. 330 and 333, attack the Etruscans who had settled in Campania. The Etruscans at length, being weary of war, admit a Samnite colony to share with them their homes and fields; but the latter, on the occasion of a great festival, when the old inhabitants are overcome by sleep after banqueting, murder them, and form the new state of Capua, which figured so much afterward in the history of the wars of Rome.

III. About B.C. 340, the first war breaks out between the Samnites and Romans, who had taken up arms to protect the Campanians against the Samnites proper of Samnium. The Romans are victorious in several encounters, and the Samnites are compelled to sue for peace. A new war, however, breaks out in 323 B.C., which is marked by varied success, and in the course of which the Roman army is compelled to pass under the yoke at the Caudine Forks. But the Samnites at length, after inflicting severe losses upon the Ro-

mans, and not only overrunning Campania, but even invading the borders of Latium, are once more compelled to sue for peace.

IV. A war breaks out again in 298 B.C., in which Q. Fabius Maximus and P. Decius Mus are the Roman commanders, and the Samnites, after a valiant resistance, are again overcome, and in 290 B.C. sue for peace, which the Romans, likewise exhausted by their dearly-bought victories, are disposed to grant. The result of this war, or, rather, succession of wars, is, that the Romans extend their power over Southern Italy, Campania, and Apulia, and thus become neighbors, and soon after enemies, of the Tarentines. The Tarentine war brings on the expedition of Pyrrhus into Italy, and in the war with Pyrrhus the Samnites join that prince, after whose second retreat they are attacked by two Roman armies and utterly defeated, 272 B.C. Samnium now becomes a conquered country, and the Romans send colonies to Maleventum and other places.

V. In the war of Hannibal the Hirpini join the Carthaginians, but the Pentri do not. At last, in the Social War, the Samnites having joined the Marsi, Vestini, Peligni, and others, in the common league against Rome, are defeated and slaughtered without mercy by Sylla, who exclaims that Rome can enjoy no repose as long as a number of Samnites can collect together. The devastation of Samnium by Sylla is most effectual; the towns are burned and razed to the ground. Beneventum alone is spared.

VI. The last time the Samnites appear in history is during the war of Sylla against the younger Marius, when Pontius Telesinus joins the latter at the head of 40,000 Samnites and Lucanians, steals a march upon Sylla, who is besieging Præneste, and advances within ten stadia of Rome, which is without any adequate defence. Telesinus tells his Samnites that he is the enemy of both Marius and Sylla, and that his object is to destroy Rome and restore freedom to Italy. Sylla, however, comes in time to save the city. A desperate battle ensues, and the Samnites, after having nearly gained the day, are obliged to retire to Antemnæ, where Telesinus is killed. Between seven and eight thousand Samnites surrender to Sylla, who marches them to Rome, and, having shut them up in the Circus Maximus, has them all butchered in cold blood while he is haranguing the senate in the neighboring temple of Bellona. The remainder of the Samnites are slaughtered in the same manner at the taking of Præneste.

(C.) CITIES OF SAMNIUM.

In the territory of the Carăcēni we find, 1. Aufidēna, their capital, now Alfidena. Frontinus informs us that it became a military colony. 2. Samnium, near the source of the Vulturnus, on the site now called Cerro. The existence of a city of this name was doubted for some time by modern writers, but the point has been fully established by Romanelli. 3. Castellum Carăcēnorum, to the northeast of the preceding, near the Sagrus, now Sangro, and on the site of the fortress which takes its name from that river, Castel di Sangro. According to Zonăras, it served as a refuge for banditti until it was stormed by the Romans, who on this occasion are said to have acquired so rich a booty that they began from that time to coin silver drachmæ. 4. Aquilônia, to the southeast, now Agnone, near

the source of the *Trinius*, now *Trigno*. This place must not be confounded with another *Aquilonia*, on the Appian Way, near the confines of Apulia, and now *Lacedogna*.

In the territory of the Pentri we find, 1. Bovianum, their capital, situate among lofty mountains, and near the site of the modern Boiano. Livy describes it as a most opulent and important place, and the consequence attached by the Romans to its possession is evinced by the repeated efforts which they made to conquer it. In the Social War it became one of the strongest holds of the confederates, after Corfinium had been abandoned. Nothing of its former importance, however, remained in the time of Strabo, who describes it as ruinous and deserted. It became a military colony under Cæsar. 2. Æsernia, to the northwest of Bovianum, about twelve miles distant, and now Isernia. It was colonized about the beginning of the first Punic war, and is mentioned by Livy as one of those colonies which distinguished themselves by their firm adherence to the Roman power during the war with Hannibal. It was recolonized by Augustus and Nero. 3. Treventum, to the northeast, now Trivento, on the Trinius, now Trigno. It was a Roman colony, and also a municipium. 4. Măronea, to the northeast, taken by Marcellus in the second Punic war, together with some considerable magazines deposited there by Hannibal. Its site corresponds to Campo Marano, on the right bank of the Trigno. 5. Tifernum, to the southeast, near the present Ponte di Limosano, on the River Tifernus, now the Biferno. The Mons Tifernus was at the source of the same river, near Bovianum. 6. Sēpīnum, to the southeast of Bovianum, a place of some note, and taken by the Romans under Papirius Cursor. It became a colony in the reign of Nero. The site answers to that which is now called Attilia, about ten miles from the modern Sepino. The continual warfare to which the country of the Samnites was so long exposed, produced its natural effects on many of the ancient towns cited in the annals of Rome, but of which no vestige can now be traced with certainty. We must, therefore, be necessarily brief in the rest of our enumeration.

7. Allifa, to the southwest of Bovianum, now Allife. This place was noted for the large-sized drinking-cups made there. 8. Tělěsia, to the southeast of the preceding, and the ruins of

which are to be seen about a mile from the modern *Telese*. This town was taken by Hannibal on his first march through Samnium. It was the native place of C. Pontius Telesinus, who fought against Sylla. 9. *Cominium Ceritum*, northeast of the preceding, and now *Cereto*.

On crossing the Vulturnus, we enter into that part of the Samnite territory which belonged properly to the Caudine Samnites. Among the cities in this quarter may be named, 1. Saticula, now St. Agata dei Goti, a place of considerable antiquity, and named by Virgil among those which sent aid to Turnus. It was colonized by the Romans, according to Festus, under the consuls Papirius Cursor and C. Junius. 2. Caudium, to the southeast of the preceding, and the site of which is to be fixed at *Paolisi* or *Cervinara*. In the vicinity of this place was the famous pass called Furcæ (or Furculæ) Caudinæ, "the Caudine Forks," where the Roman army, commanded by the consuls T. Veturius and Sp. Postumius, was entrapped by the Samnite leader C. Pontius, and compelled to pass under the yoke. According to the best opinion, the valley of Arpaia represents the Furcæ Caudinæ, a circumstance which is strongly confirmed by the name of Furclæ, which this valley is known to have borne in the Middle Ages, and which is still preserved in that of the little village in this quarter, now called Forchie. Among the mountains which form the passes of Arpaia and Montesarchio we must distinguish Mons Tăburnus, which rises to the east of Saticula. This lofty mountain, still called Taburno or Tabor, derives celebrity from Virgil, and is also mentioned by the poet Gratius. 3. Běněventum, about ten miles to the northeast of Caudium, and on the Appian Way. Its earlier name was Măleventum, which is said to have been given it on account of its unhealthy atmosphere. The more auspicious appellation of Beneventum was substituted when the Romans sent a colony thither. Some, however, who think this explanation more fanciful than satisfactory, make the earlier name to have been Maluentum, without any reference to unhealthiness of situation, and as this sounded to Roman ears like Maleventum, it was deemed an inauspicious appellation, and Beneventum was substituted. Beneventum was situated near the junction of the Sabătus and Călor, now Sabbato and Calore.

We have now to speak of the Hirpīni, who, though compre-

hended under the general denomination of Samnītes, seem to have formed a distinct people. Their name was said to be derived from the word hirpus, which in the Samnite dialect signified "a wolf;" and it has been supposed that they were originally a Sabine colony, who were guided in their migrations to this quarter by following the tracks of this species of animal.

Among the cities of the Hirpini we may name, 1. Abellinum, now Abellino, in the mountains which separated this people from the Picentini. Its inhabitants were distinguished from those of another Abellinum, which belonged to Lucania, by the appellation of Abellinātes Protropi. 2. Æculānum or Æclānum, on the Appian Way, about thirteen modern miles from Beneventum, in a southeast direction. It was besieged by Sylla during the civil wars. The ruins lie near Mirabella, on the site called by the natives Le Grotte. 3. Taurasium, a little to the southeast of the preceding, and now Taurasi. It is mentioned in the inscription on the tomb of Scipio Barbatus as one of the towns taken by that general. In its vicinity were the Taurăsini Campi, where Pyrrhus, on his return from Italy, was totally defeated by M. Curius Dentatus. The name of these plains is incorrectly written Arusini Campi in Florus and other ancient authors. The Romans, many years afterward, settled in this district a numerous body of Ligurians whom they had conquered and removed from their country. 4. Æquus Tūticus or Equotuticus, to the northeast of Beneventum, and on the Appian Way. D'Anville places it at Castel Franco, which is nearly correct; the exact site, however, is occupied by the ancient church of St. Eleuterio, a martyr, who is stated in old ecclesiastical records to have suffered at Æquum. This place is about five miles from Ariano, in a northerly direction. ticus is an Oscan word, and is said to be equivalent to the Latin Magnus. It is commonly supposed that Horace means this place in the account of his journey to Brundisium (Sat., i., 5, 87), where he makes mention of a town having a name that could not be introduced into hexameter verse. This supposition, however, is an erroneous one. After leaving Beneventum, Horace and his party passed the first night at a villa close to Trivicum, now Trivico, a place situate to the southeast of Equus Tuticus, among the mountains separating Samnium from Apulia. On the following night they lodged at the town

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with the untractable name, and on the third day reached Canusium. Now, if this town had been Æquus Tuticus, they must have gone back in a northwestern direction, and one quite out of their way; and, besides, they must then have travelled only twenty-two miles during the first and second day, and have left forty-two miles for the third. This, however, is both at variance with the text, and inconsistent with the manner in which the journey was performed. 5. Compsa, on the southern confines of this part of Samnium, now Conza. It was a city of some note, and revolted to Hannibal after the battle of Cannæ. It was here that this general left all his baggage, and part of his army, when advancing into Campania.

The small nation of the Frentani appear to have possessed a separate political existence, independent of the Samnite confederacy, though we are assured they derived their descent from that warlike and populous race. From Plutarch we learn that they distinguished themselves in the war against Pyrrhus; and it appears that they faithfully adhered to the Roman cause throughout the whole of the second Punic war. Whatever may have been their former extent of territory, we find it restricted by the geographers of the Augustan age to the tract of country lying between the mouths of the Aternus and Tifernus, the former separating it from the Marrucini on the north, and the latter from the country of Apulia to the south. The few cities of the Frentani with which we are acquainted appear to have been situate on the coast. These are, 1. Ortona, still retaining its ancient site and name. Strabo calls it the naval arsenal of the Frentani. 2. Anxănum, south of the preceding, and more inland. The name of this town seems to have been also written Anxa and Anxia. It occupied the site now called Lanciano Vecchio. 3. Būca, beyond the River Sagrus, and a seaport town. Its ruins may be seen at a place named Penna. 4. Histonium, further along the coast, and now Vasto d'Ammone. It was once the haunt of savage pirates, who, as Strabo reports, formed their dwellings from the wrecks of ships, and in other respects lived more like beasts of prey than civilized beings. A Roman colony was subsequently established here. Beyond this place is the mouth of the Trinius, now Trigno. 5. Interanna, a small town and port, now Termoli. The Tifernus, now the Biferno, terminates the description of the Ager Frentanus to the south.

11. APULIA, INCLUDING DAUNIA AND MESSĀPIA OR IAPЎGIA. Name, Boundaries, &c.

I. We have now left central Italy or Italia Propria, and are entering upon the region called Magna Græcia (ή Ἑλλας μεγάλη), a name given to it on account of the numerous and flourishing colonies established by the Greeks in this section of the peninsula. There is some difficulty in determining how far this appellation extended, but, according to the best authorities, it appears to have comprised Apulia, Messāpia or Iapygia, Lucānia, and Bruttium; or, in other words, the portion of Italy that remains still to be considered by us.

II. It appears from Strabo's account that the name of Apulia was originally applied to a small tract of country immediately to the southeast of the Frentani.

In the reign of Augustus, however, the term Apulia was used in a much more extended sense, and included not only Daunia, but also the country of Messapia or Ianuria.

III. On the other hand, what may be remarked as a singular circumstance, the term *Messapia* or *Iapygia* appears to have been confined at first to that peninsula which closes the Gulf of Tarentum to the southeast, but afterward to have had the same extension given to it by the Greeks which the Roman historians and geographers assigned to Apulia, a name of which the Greeks were ignorant.

IV. The boundaries of Apulia, then, in the widest sense of the term, were as follows: on the north by the territory of the *Frentani* and the *Sinus Urias*; on the northeast by the *Hadriatic*; on the southeast by the *Hadriatic* and a part of the *Sinus Tarentinus*; and on the southwest by *Samnium* and *Lucania*.

V. We will now proceed to consider the several portions of country comprehended under this name, and which are, 1. Apulia Proper; 2. Daunia; 3. Peucetia; and, 4. Messapia or Iapygia.

1. APULIA PROPER.

Apulia Proper, or Apulia originally so called, was a district of very limited extent. According to Strabo, it was contiguous to the Ager Frentānus on one side, and to Daunia on the other, and its lower limit was a line drawn from the coast a little below Uria or Hyrium and the Lacus Uriānus, now Lago Varano, across the country to the Apennines above Lūcēria.

Beginning, then, from the River Tifernus, we come to, 1. Cliternia, the ruins of which are to be seen at a small place called Licchiano, on the little river Sacchione, near the sea. 2. Lärinum, to the southwest, and the ruins of which occupy the site called Larino Vecchio. This was a place of considerable importance, and appears to have belonged at one time to the Frentani, from the name of Larinates Frentani attached to its inhabitants by Pliny. It formed in itself a small independent state before it became subject to the Roman power. We have frequent mention of Larinum in Cicero's defence of Cluentius, who was a citizen of the place. We gather, too, from the same oration, that it was a municipal town and in a flourishing condition. 3. Călela, to the southwest, a fortress near which Minucius was stationed during the absence of the dictator Fabius. Its site answers to Casa Calenda. 4. Gerünium, about two miles to the northeast of the preceding, selected by Hannibal for his winter-quarters after the campaign against Fabius. It had been previously carried by storm, the private dwellings had been destroyed, and the principal buildings were reserved only as magazines for the corn which the surrounding country supplied in great abundance. It was here that Hannibal was opposed to the rash Minucius, who, but for the timely aid afforded him by Fabius, would have paid dearly for his presumption in supposing that he was able to cope with the Carthaginian leader. Gerunium appears to have been situated on a spot still known by the name of *Girone*, between *Casa Calenda* and *Montorio*.

5. Teate Apulum, so called to distinguish it from Teate of the Marrucini. It lay a short distance to the southeast of Cliternia, and its ruins bear the name of Chieti Vecchio. num Apŭlum, so called to distinguish it from the Campanian Teanum. It lay to the southeast of the preceding. makes it to have been situate at the head of a lake formed by the sea, which encroached so considerably upon the land that the breadth of Italy between this point and Puteoli did not exceed one hundred stadia. This lake was the Lacus Pantānus, now Lago di Lesina. The ruins of Teanum exist on the site of Civitate, about a mile from the right bank of the Fortore, the ancient Frento, and ten miles from the sea. 7. Uria or Ureium (Οὔρειον), as Strabo writes it, but, according to Ptolemy, Hyrium ("Υριον), a place the situation of which has not yet been clearly determined, partly because there was another city of the same name in Messapia, and partly because Strabo and Pliny differ with regard to the position of the present one, Strabo placing it to the north of the promontory of Garganum, and Pliny to the south of it. Strabo's opinion is undoubtedly the true one, and his Ureium answers to the modern Rodi. Hence, too, the Sinus Urias, which is erroneously placed on most maps below the promontory of Garganum, is more correctly placed above it.

Opposite to the Sinus Urias, and at no great distance from the coast, are some small islands, celebrated in mythology as the scene of the metamorphosis of Diomede's companions, who were changed into birds, and of the disappearance of that hero himself. Hence they were known by the name of Insulæ Diomedēæ. Ancient writers differ as to their number. Strabo and Pliny recognize two, and the latter states that one was called Diomedēa, the other Teutria. Ptolemy, however, reckons five, which is said to be the correct number, if we include in the group three barren rocks, which scarcely deserve the name of islands. The island which Pliny calls Diomedea appears to have also borne the appellation Tremītus, as we learn

from Tacitus, who informs us that it was the spot to which Augustus removed his abandoned grand-daughter Julia, and where she terminated a life of infamy. It is now called *Tremiti*. *Teutria* is now *Pianosa*.

2. DAUNIA.

I. Daunia extended from the southern limits of Apulia Proper, as far south as a line drawn from the mouth of the Aufidus to Silvium, now Garagnone, in the Apennines, and passing to the east of Cannæ and Cănŭsium, which, therefore, both belonged to the Daunian territory.

II. The Daunii appear to have been one of the earliest Italian tribes with which the Greeks became acquainted, from the circumstance of their having formed colonies, which they established at a remote period on the western shores of the Adriatic. This people, according to the received tradition, obtained their appellation from Daunus, the father-in-law of Diomede, the latter, on his return from Troy, having been compelled by domestic troubles to abandon his native country, and having founded another kingdom in the plains wastered by the Aufidus. This tradition, whatever may be its truth in other respects, proves at least the great antiquity of the Daunians as an indigenous people of Italy. Other accounts, perhaps still more ancient, asserted that Daunus was an Illyrian chief, who, driven from his country by an adverse faction, formed a settlement in this part of Italy.

III. According to some writers, the Apŭli, Daunii, Peucĕtii, and Calabri were actually Illyrians; but the safer opinion undoubtedly is to consider them as the descendants of a remnant of Liburni and other ancient Illyrians, mingled with a subsequent and preponderating influx of Oscans and different native Italian tribes.

Among the cities on the coast of Daunia we may notice the following: 1. Merinum, to the northeast of Uria or Hyrium, and near the promontory of Gargānum. Its inhabitants are called by Pliny "Merinates ex Gargano." The church of St. Maria di Merino marks the ancient site. 2. Agăsus Portus, on the other side of the promontory, now probably Porto Greco. 3. Matīnum, at the foot of Mons Gargānus, and the name of which is recalled by the modern Matinata, which probably also marks the ancient site. It was here, according to the best commentators on Horace, that Archytas, the celebrated philosopher of Tarentum, was interred, when cast on shore after shipwreck. The vicinity of this town was famed for its bees and honey. One of the summits of Garganus, inland from this place, was called Drium Mons. On it were two chapels sacred to Calchas and Podalirius. A rivulet issuing from the base of the mountain was said to have the property of healing all disorders incident to cattle. Mons Garganus is called at the present day Monte Sant' Angelo.

4. Sipus ($\Sigma \iota \pi o \tilde{v}_{\varsigma}$, $o \tilde{v}_{\varsigma} v \tau o \varsigma$), or, as the Latins write it, Sipontum, lower down on the coast, and southwest of Matinum. It was a city of Greek origin, and great antiquity, and was fabled to have been founded by Diomede. According to Strabo, the name of the place was derived from the circumstance of great quantities of cuttle-fish $(\sigma \eta \pi \iota a, sepia)$ being thrown up by the sea on its shore. The ruins of this once flourishing city are said to exist about two miles to the west of Manfredonia, the founding of which city led to the final desertion of Sipontum by its inhabitants, as they were transferred by King Manfredi to this modern town, which is known to have risen under his auspices.

Turning our attention now to the cities in the interior of Daunia, we come to, 1. Arpi, or, as it was first called, Argyrippa, which last appellation was supposed to be a modification of "Aργος "Ιππιον, the name which it was said to have received originally from its reputed founder Diomede. Arpi lay in a southwest direction from Sipontum, and, whoever was its founder, appears to have been a city of great antiquity. In Strabo's time it was greatly reduced, but it still continued to exist under Constantine as an episcopal see. The ruins observable between Foggia and Manfredonia are supposed to point out the exact situation of Arpi, and are said still to retain that name. 2. Sălăpia, to the southeast, between a lake thence called Palus Salapina and the River Aufidus. This also was a place of very early origin, and some suppose it to have been a Rhodian colony. The inhabitants of this place, finding its proximity to the lake or marsh injurious to health, removed eventually nearer the coast, where they built a new town, with the assistance of M. Hostilius, a Roman prætor, who caused a communication to be opened between the lake and the sea. Considerable remains of both towns are still standing at some distance from each other, under the name of Salpi. The Palus Salapina is now called Lago di Salpi.

3. Lūceria, to the southwest, another town of great antiquity, and said to have been founded by Diomede. It was an important city, and was noted, also, for the excellence of its wool, a property, indeed, which, according to Strabo, was common to all Apulia. The town still retains its ancient site under the modern name of Lucera. 4. Herdōnia, to the southeast, now

Ordona, on a branch of the Appian Way. It was burned by Hannibal, and the inhabitants were removed from the place. It must, however, have risen afterward from this state of ruin, since we find it mentioned as a colony by Frontinus, under the corrupt name of Ardona. Strabo calls it Cerdonia, and places it on the continuation of the Egnatian Way, between Canusium and Beneventum. 5. Ascülum Apülum, to the southwest of Herdonia, and so called to distinguish it from Asculum in Picenum. It was under the walls of this town that Pyrrhus encountered a second time the Roman army, after having gained a signal victory in Lucania. The battle was obstinately contested, but attended with no decisive advantage to either side. The site of this place corresponds to the modern Ascoli. 6. Věnŭsia, to the southeast, on the great Appian Way leading to Tarentum. It is now Venosa. This place appears to have been a Roman colony of some importance before the war against Pyrrhus. After the disaster at Cannæ, it afforded a retreat to the consul Varro and the handful of men who escaped with him from that bloody field. The services rendered by the Venusini on that occasion obtained for them afterward the special thanks and eulogium of the Roman senate. Venusia is remarkable. also, in literary history, from the poet Horace having been born within its territory, on the doubtful confines of Apulia and Lucania. To the south of Venusia rises Mons Vultur, now Monte Vulture, alluded to by Horace among the scenes of his early boyhood. From the conical shape of the mountain, and its mineralogical character, naturalists have inferred that it is an extinct volcano.

7. Förentum, about eight miles south of Venusia, and now Forenza. It was on the other side of Mons Vultur, and is mentioned by Horace. 8. Bantia, more to the east, and higher up toward the mountains. In the vicinity of this place Marcellus fell a victim to the stratagem of Hannibal. Bantia is also mentioned by Horace. The modern name is Banza. 9. Acherontia, now Acerenza, situate, as Horace describes it, on an almost inaccessible hill south of Forentum. Livy and Procopius both mention it as a place of great strength. 10. Cānūsium, on the right bank of the Aufīdus, and about twelve miles from its mouth. This was a flourishing and very ancient city, and its origin seems to belong to a period which reaches

far beyond the records of Roman history, and of which we possess no memorial but what a fabulous tradition has conveyed Splendid remains of antiquity still exist among its ruins, which are known by the name of Canosa. This place, also, like Venusia, afforded shelter to the Roman fugitives after the battle of Cannæ. Hadrian colonized the town, and procured for it a supply of good water, of which it stood in much need, as we learn from Horace. The epithet of "bilinguis," applied by the same poet to this place, refers to the mixed dialect of Oscan and Greek that was spoken here. 11. Cannæ, a village situated about five miles from Canusium, toward the sea, and at no great distance from the Aufidus. It is memorable for the great victory obtained by Hannibal in its vicinity over the Roman consuls Terentius Varro and Æmilius Paulus. The battle was fought on the second of August, B.C. 216. Of the Romans there fell 45,000, among whom were the consul Æmilius Paulus, eighty senators, and a number of persons who had been invested with the highest offices of the republic. Varro escaped with a few horsemen to Venusia, and another small detachment threw itself into Canusium; but Hannibal, unconcerned about the latter, marched toward Capua. It appears from Polybius that Cannæ, as a town, was destroyed the year before the battle was fought, and a village would seem to have sprung up on its site. The citadel, however, was preserved, and the circumstance of its occupation by Hannibal seems to have been regarded by the Romans of sufficient importance to cause them considerable uneasiness and annovance. It commanded, indeed, all the adjacent country, and was the principal southern depôt of stores and provisions, on which they had depended for the approaching campaign. The field of battle was the plain between Cannæ and the Aufidus. The site of Cannæ is still known by the name of Canne.

3. PEUCETIA.

I. Next to the Daunii were the *Peucetii*, who, according to Dionysius of Halicarnassus, derived their name from Peucetius, son of Lycaon, king of Arcadia, who, with his brother Œnotrus, migrated to Italy seventeen generations before the siege of Troy. This, however, seems to be pure fable. The Peucetii are always spoken of in history, even by the Greeks themselves, as barbarians, who differed in no essential respect from the Daunii, Iapyges, and other neighboring nations.

II. The name of Padiculi was given to the inhabitants of that part of Peuce-

tia which was more particularly situated on the coast between the Aufidus and the confines of the Calabri. It is stated by Pliny that this particular tribe derived their origin from Illyria.

III. The *Peucětii* appear, then, to have extended along the coast of the Adriatic, from the *Aufidus* to the neighborhood of *Brundisium*, which city belonged to Iapygia; and in the interior their territory reached as far as *Silvium*, in the Apennines, constituting principally what in modern geography is called *Terra di Bari*

Omitting the mention of several places known only from the Itineraries, we come to, 1. Bārium, now Bari, the first town of note we meet with on the coast after leaving the Aufidus. It is mentioned by Horace in the account of his journey to Brundisium, and the epithet "piscosi" employed by him in speaking of it, refers to the extensive fishery carried on here in former days. The inhabitants of the modern Bari are said to be still principally fishermen. 2. Egnātia, further on, situate upon the coast, and communicating its name to the consular way which followed the coast from Canusium to Brundisium. Its ruins are still apparent near the Torre d'Agnazzo and the town of Monopoli. Pliny states that a certain stone was shown at Egnatia which was said to possess the property of setting fire to wood that was placed upon it. It was this prodigy, seemingly, which afforded so much amusement to Horace on his Brundisian journey.

In the interior of Peucetia we may notice the following towns: 1. $R\bar{u}bi$, now Ruvo, to the east of Canusium, and on the Egnatian Way. It is alluded to by Horace in the account of his journey. 2. $R\bar{u}dia$ Peucetia, to the northwest of the preceding, and so called to distinguish it from Rudia in Calabria. Romanelli places it at the modern Andria. 3. $B\bar{u}tuntum$, to the southeast of Rubi, and on the Egnatian Way. It is now Bitonto. 4. $Gr\bar{u}mum$, to the southeast of the preceding, now Grumo, a village not far from Palo. The inhabitants are called Grumbestini by Pliny. 5. $Az\bar{e}tium$, to the northeast of the preceding, and now Rotigliano. It appears to answer to the Ehetium of the Theodosian Table. 6. Silvium, to the east of Venusia, now Garagnone. It was situate on the Appian Way, among the Apennines.

4. MESSĀPIA OR IAPYGIA.

I. All that now remains of Apulia may be classed under the head of *Messapia* or *Iapygia*, comprising the whole of that remarkable peninsula which incloses the Gulf of *Tarentum* to the northeast, and which has not unaptly been

termed by modern geographers the heel of the boot. Under this appellation, therefore, will be included the *Calabri*, the *Sallentini*, and the city of *Tarentum*, with its territory.

II. The name Messapia is supposed to have been applied to the whole country from the town of Messapia in Calabria, to which it originally belonged. The name Iapygia was popularly derived from Iapyx, the son of Dædalus. This, however, is a mere fable. Still, though we have no positive information regarding the origin of the Iapyges, their existence on these shores, prior to the arrival of any Grecian colony, is recognized by the earliest writers of that nation, such as Herodotus (vii., 170) and Hellanicus of Lesbos (ap. Dionys. Hal., 1., 22). Thucydides evidently considered them as barbarians (vii., 33), as well as Scylax, in his Periplus (p. 5), and Pausanias (x., 10); and this, in fact, is the idea which we must form of this people, whether we look upon them as descended from an Umbrian, Oscan, or Illyrian race, or from an intermixture of these earliest Italian tribes.

III. The name of *Iapygia* was not known to the Romans except as an appellation borrowed from the Greeks, to whom it was familiar. We are not informed at what period the name of *Iapygia* began to be superseded by that of *Apulia*, but we may observe that even the latest Greek writers always designate this part of *Italy* by the former appellation.

1. CALXBRI.

The district occupied by the Calăbri seems to have been that maritime part of the Iapygian peninsula extending from Brundisium to the city of Hydruntum, and answering nearly to what is now called Terra di Lecce. This branch of the Iapygian race does not seem to have been particularly distinguished by the Greeks—at least we do not find it noticed by any writer of that nation anterior to Polybius.

Among the cities in this quarter, we may name, 1. Brundisium, the most ancient and celebrated city on this coast, and now Brindisi. By the Greeks it was called Βρεντέσιον, a word which in the Messapian language signified "a stag's head," from the resemblance which its different harbors and creeks bore to the antlers of that animal. Various accounts are given of the origin of the place, but all unsatisfactory. Its antiquity is evident, however, from the statement of Strabo, that Brundisium was already in existence when the Lacedæmonian Phalanthus arrived with his colony in this part of Italy. The advantageous situation of its harbor for communicating with the opposite coast of Greece naturally rendered Brundisium a place of great resort, from the time that the colonies of that country had fixed themselves on the shores of Italy. Brundisium soon became a formidable rival to Tarentum, which had hitherto engrossed all the commerce of this part of Italy; nor did the fa-

cilities which it afforded for extending their conquests out of that country escape the penetrating views of the Romans. Under the pretence that several towns on this coast had favored the invasion of Pyrrhus, they declared war against them, and soon possessed themselves of Brundisium, whither a colony was sent, B.C. 245. From this period the prosperity of this port continued to increase in proportion to the greatness of the Roman empire. Large fleets were always stationed here for the conveyance of troops into Macedonia, Greece, or Asia; and from the convenience of its harbor, and its facility of access from every other part of Italy, it became a place of general thoroughfare for travellers visiting those countries. When the rapid advance of Cæsar forced Pompey to remove the seat of war into Epirus, he was for some time blockaded by his successful adversary in Brundisium. Cæsar describes accurately the works undertaken there by his orders for preventing the escape of the enemy; and from his account we learn that this place had two harbors, one called the interior, the other the exterior, communicating by a very narrow passage. Strabo considered the harbor of Brundisium superior to that of Tarentum, for the latter was not free from shoals. It was at Brundisium that a convention was held for the purpose of arranging the exciting differences between Augustus and Marc Antony, and among the commissioners appointed by the former was Mæcenas, who was accompanied by Horace. It was this journey which the poet has so humorously delineated in the fifth Satire of the First Book of these productions. At the present day the commercial advantages of this once celebrated port are nearly all lost by the entrance to the inner harbor being almost shut up, and allowing ingress to only the smallest vessels.

2. Rūdiæ, to the southeast of the preceding, and called Rudiæ Calabræ, to distinguish it from Rudiæ in Peucetia. It was celebrated as having been the birth-place of Ennius. Its remains are still known by the name of Ruge. 3. Hydrus (Υδροῦς), called by the Latins Hydruntum, and now Otranto, to the southeast of Rudiæ. This was a port of some note as early as the time of Scylax, who names it in his Periplus. It was deemed the nearest point of Italy to Greece, the distance being only fifty miles, and the passage might be effected in five hours. This circumstance led Pyrrhus, it is said, to form the

project of uniting the two coasts by a bridge thrown across from Hydruntum to Apollonia! In Strabo's time Hydruntum was only a small town, though its harbor was still frequented.

In the interior of Iapygia, which, properly speaking, seems to have been the territory of the Messapii, we may notice, 1. Carminianum, now Carmignano. 2. Sturnium, to the southeast of the preceding, now Sternaccio. 3. Uria or Hyria, in the more northern part of the peninsula, between Brundisium and Tarentum, and now Oria. This was a place of great antiquity, and was said to have been of Cretan origin, a fable connected in some way with the legend that the Iapygians were a colony from Crete. 4. Messapia, between Uria and Brundisium, and supposed by some to have communicated its name to the Messapian nation. It coincides probably with the modern Messagna.

The Sallentini or Salentini can not be distinguished with accuracy from the Calabri, as we find the former appellation used by several writers in a very extensive sense, and applied not only to the greater part of Iapygia, but even to districts entirely removed from it. Strabo himself confesses the difficulty of assigning any exact limits to these two people, and he contents himself with observing that the country of the Sallentini lay properly around the Iapygian promontory. It was asserted that they were a colony of Cretans, who, under the conduct of Idomeneus, their king, had arrived in this quarter during their wanderings after the capture of Troy.

Among the cities in this part of the peninsula, we may notice, 1. Sarmādium, an inland town of the Sallentini, now Muro. 2. Basta, to the southeast, the people of which are called Basterbini by Pliny. The name of this city occurs, also, in the remarkable Messapian inscription found near its site. The ancient appellation of Basta is yet partly preserved in that of Vaste. Close to the sea was a temple of Minerva, once very celebrated and wealthy. It was afterward called Castrum Minerva, and the spot is still called Castro. 3. Leuca, almost at the extremity of the peninsula, and some traces of the name of which still exist on the spot in that of a church dedicated to the Virgin under the title of S. Maria di Leuca. The Iapygian promontory, also, is now called Capo di Leuca. For an account of this promontory, consult page 257.

- 4. Callipolis, to the northwest of Leuca, and on the upper shore of the Sinus Tarentinus. It is now Gallipoli. The name alone of this place, if we had no other evidence of the fact, would indicate a Greek origin. It owed its foundation to Leucippus, a Lacedæmonian, who erected a town here with the consent of the Tarentines. 5. Manduria, to the northwest of the preceding, and southwest of Uria. This otherwise obscure place has acquired some interest in history from having witnessed the death of Archidamus, king of Sparta, the son of Agesilaus, who had come over to aid the Tarentines against the Messapians and Lucanians. A curious well is described by Pliny as existing near this town. According to his account, its waters always maintained the same level, whatever quantity was added to or taken from it. This phenomenon may still be observed at the present day. The site of Manduria is now called Casal Nuovo.
- 6. Tărentum, in Greek Τάρας, and now Taranto. This city was situate in the northeastern angle of the Sinus Tarentinus, and may be regarded as the most distinguished colony ever founded by the Greeks, whether we consider its celebrity in the annals of Greece, its rank among the Italian states, or the importance subsequently attached to its possession by the Romans. It is said to have been originally a town of the Messapians, to which were joined some Cretan colonists. About B.C. 694, according to the story, Phalanthus, the leader of the Partheniæ from Sparta, arrived on the coast of Iapygia, took Tarentum, and expelled the original inhabitants. After a war with the Iapygians, in which Tarentum sustained severe losses, it gradually became a flourishing commercial city, and the most powerful settlement in Magna Græcia. About B.C. 338, the Tarentines, being engaged in war with their neighbors the Lucanians, applied to Sparta for aid. Archidamus, the son of Agesilaus, was sent to them, but he was killed in battle. Some years after, being hard pressed by the Lucanians and Bruttii, they called in Alexander, king of Epirus, and uncle to Alexander the Great; but he was surprised and killed by the Bruttii near Pandosia, B.C. 323. The Tarentines had by this time degenerated, like most of the Greeks on the Italian coast, and had become luxurious and effeminate. In B.C. 282 they became engaged in hostilities with the Romans, and called Pyr-

rhus, king of Epirus, to their aid; but, though this monarch was successful in the first instance, the Tarentines were too effeminate to give him much support, and the Roman arms finally triumphed. In the second Punic war, irritated at the cruel treatment of their hostages, who had attempted to escape from Rome, the Tarentines opened their gates to Hanni-The citadel, however, still held out until the Romans, under Fabius Maximus, surprised and recaptured the city. Immense plunder was obtained on this occasion. From this period the prosperity and political existence of Tarentum may date its decline, which was further accelerated by the preference shown by the Romans to the port of Brundisium for the fitting out of their naval armaments, as well as for commercial purposes. The salubrity of its climate, the singular fertility of its territory, and its advantageous situation on the sea, as well as on the Appian Way, still rendered it, however, a city of consequence in the Augustan age. Horace calls it "molle Tarentum" and "imbelle Tarentum." The Greek language and manners were retained by the inhabitants even after the fall of the Western Empire. Tarentum was one of the chief strongholds retained by the Byzantine emperors in South-About A.D. 774, Romualdus, the Langobard, duke of Beneventum, took Tarentum from the Byzantines. Saracens landed at this place about A.D. 830. The town was afterward several times taken and retaken and sacked, and it was during this period that the old city on the main land was abandoned, and the inhabitants retired to the island or peninsula on which the Acropolis had stood. This is the site of modern Taranto, occupying only a small part of that of the an-Taranto has the advantage of being the only safe harbor in that part of the southeastern coast of Italy which extends from the Straits of Messina to Capo di Leuca. The territory of ancient Tarentum was famed for its wool, and much wool is still grown in the neighborhood of the modern town. The River Galæsus, now the Galeso, flowed within five miles of Tarentum, and fell into the inner harbor. The sheep which fed along the banks of this stream and in the adjacent valley of Aulon, had a wool so fine that they were covered with skins to protect it from injury. This stream is often mentioned in terms of praise by the poets. Tarentum was also celebrated for its purple dye.

The fertile ridge and valley of Aulon, just referred to, were situate on the left bank of the Galæsus, and to the northeast of Tarentum. The modern name is Terra di Melone. Horace bestows a warm eulogium on this delightful spot. Saturium (Σατύρεον) is also a spot in the Tarentine territory frequently alluded to by the ancient writers. It was famed for its fertility and its breed of horses. The name is still preserved in that of Saturio, a hamlet on the sea-coast, about seven miles to the east of Taranto. To the west of Tarentum was the little river Taras, now Tara.

Opposite to the entrance of the harbor of Tarentum were two small islands, anciently known as the *Insulæ Chærādæ*, but which derive their modern names from the apostles *St. Peter* and *St. Paul*. They deserve our notice as being mentioned by Thucydides, who states that Demosthenes and Eurymedon, who commanded the troops sent to re-enforce the Athenians in their expedition against Sicily, took on board here some Messapian archers, supplied by Arta, a chief of that nation, with whom they had contracted an alliance.

12. LUCANIA.

(A.) BOUNDARIES, HISTORY, &c.

I. Lucānia, considered as a Roman province, was bounded on the north by the territory of the Picentini, Samnium, and Apulia; on the east by the Sinus Tarentinus; on the south by Bruttium and the Mare Inferum; and on the west by the Mare Inferum. It was separated from Apulia by the River Bradānus, and a line drawn from that stream to the Silārus, which latter stream served also as a boundary on the side of the Picentini. To the south it was separated from Bruttium by the rivers Laüs and Crāthis, the former emptying into the Mare Inferum, the latter into the Sinus Tarentinus.

II. The *Lucani* were descended from the Sabine stock. As their numbers increased, they gradually advanced from the interior toward the coast, and were soon engaged in hostilities with the Greeks, who, unable to make good their defence, gradually yielded, and allowed their hardy and resistless foes to obtain possession of all the settlements formed on the western coast. The Romans, however, subsequently appeared upon the scene, and the Lucani, in their turn, were compelled to sub-

mit to the victors of Pyrrhus. The war which Hannibal subsequently carried on in this and the adjoining parts of the peninsula proved a source of serious injury, from which they were slow in recovering.

(B.) CITIES OF LUCANIA.

Beginning with the cities situate on the eastern coast, and leaving the Bradanus, now the Bradano, we come to, 1. Metapontum, one of the most celebrated of the Grecian colonies. The original name of the place appears to have been Metăbum, which, it is said, was derived from Metabus, a hero to whom divine honors were paid. Metabum, it seems, was in a deserted state, owing probably to the attacks of the neighboring barbarians, when a party of Achæans, invited for that purpose by the Sybarites, landed on the coast, and took possession of the town, which thenceforth was called Μεταπόντιον, or, as the Romans afterward wrote it, Metapontum. The Achæans, soon after their arrival, seem to have been engaged in a war with the Tarentines, and this led to a treaty, by which the Bradanus was recognized as forming the separation of the two territories. Pythagoras was held in particular estimation by the people of this place, and he is said to have resided here for many years. After his death, the house which he had inhabited was converted into a temple of Ceres. In the time of Pausanias, this city, after a long and flourishing existence, was reduced to a mere heap of ruins; but the causes which had led to this are not stated. Considerable vestiges still exist near the station called Torre di Mare. Crossing the Casuentus, now Basiento, flowing near Metapontum, and the Acalandus, now Salandella, we come to, 2. Heraclea, situate between the Aciris, now the Agri, and the Siris, now the Sinno. It was founded by the Tarentines after the desertion of the ancient city of Siris, which had stood at the mouth of the River Siris. Heraclea is remark. able as having been the seat of the general council of the Greek states in Italy. Its site has been fixed at Policoro, about three miles from the mouth of the Agri.

3. Pandösia, to the northwest of the preceding, and not many miles from it. Plutarch, in his life of Pyrrhus, states that the first battle in which that monarch defeated the Romans was fought between this place and Heraclea. This city, however,

must not be confounded with the Pandosia near which Alexander of Epirus lost his life. This last was in Bruttium. Traces of the Lucanian Pandosia are to be found on the right bank of the Agri, about five miles from the ruins of Heraclea, at a place called Anglona, 4. Siris, at the mouth of the river of the same name, and fabled to have been founded by a Trojan colony, which was afterward expelled by some Ionians, who migrated from Colophon during the reign of Alyattes, king of Lydia, and, having taken the town by force, changed its name to Poliaum. The poet Archilochus, cited by Athenaus, speaks with admiration of the surrounding country. The inhabitants of the place are said to have rivalled in all respects the luxury and affluence of the Sybarites. When the Tarentines founded Heraclea, they removed all the Sirites to this city, and Siris then became its harbor merely. Siris is thought to have stood on the left bank of the Sinno, but no traces of it remain. garia, to the southwest, said to have been founded by a party of Phocians headed by Epeus, the architect of the wooden horse. The wine of this district was in good repute, and is still much esteemed. The village of Nucara is supposed to represent the ancient site.

6. Sybăris, situate on the coast, between the Crāthis, now the Crati, and the Sybaris, now the Sibari or Coscile. It was a colony founded about B.C. 720, by Achæans and Træzenians, and, in consequence of the fertility of the district, increased with great rapidity in wealth and power; for, at the time of its greatest prosperity, that is, about two hundred years after its foundation, it had, according to Strabo, acquired the dominion over four neighboring tribes, had twenty-five subject towns, the city itself occupied a space of fifty stadia in circumference, and the Sybarites were enabled to send an army of 300,000 men into the field. It became, also, the mother of other colonies, and carried on a considerable commerce, especially with Miletus in Asia Minor. But the prosperity of Sybaris had a pernicious influence on the people, and within the short period of two hundred and ten years that Sybaris existed, the effeminacy and luxury of the inhabitants were carried to such a pitch that the name Sybarite became proverbial, and synonymous with a voluptuous person. Many curious particulars in illustration of their effeminate character are mentioned by Athenæus, which

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it would be difficult to believe if they were not reported on the authority of Aristotle, Timæus, and Phylarchus. It is probable, however, that all we read about the effeminacy of the Sybarites applies only to the ruling aristocracy. The government appears always to have been in the hands of the aristocracy, which, as the words of Aristotle seem to suggest, consisted of the Træzenians, while the Achæans, who in numbers far exceeded the Træzenians, formed the commonalty. These two parties were engaged in a continual struggle, which at last, when it broke out into a civil war, led to the total destruction In an insurrection which occurred, the people drove out five hundred of the aristocracy, and divided their property among themselves. The exiles fled to Crotona, and implored the aid of its citizens. This was granted, and a battle ensued, in which the Sybarite army consisted of 300,000 men, while the Crotoniats could muster no more than 100,000. last, however, were under the command of Milo, the celebrated athlete, and his prowess made up for this great disparity of The Sybarites were totally defeated; the conquerors advanced against the city, sacked and razed it to the ground, and most of the inhabitants were put to the sword. The River Crathis was then turned through the ruins to obliterate every trace of its former greatness (B.C. 510). Within seventy days, Sybaris, from one of the most flourishing cities of Italy, became a heap of ruins. A few of the former inhabitants, who survived the fate of their native city, still clung, however, to the spot, and fifty-eight years later, some Thessalian adventurers having arrived there, the town was rebuilt; but, after it had existed for five years, it was again destroyed by the Crotoniats. habitants now solicited the aid of Athens and Sparta; but the former alone sent them ten ships, under Lampon and Xenocrates, and, on the advice of an oracle, these Athenians, with whom was Herodotus the historian and Lysias the orator, together with many other Greeks and the remnant of the Sybarites, founded, in B.C. 444, the colony of Thurii, a little to the south of the site of Sybaris. In this new colony, however, the Sybarites wished to form a kind of aristocracy, and claimed privileges which their fellow-settlers were unwilling to allow them. The consequence was, that in the ensuing struggle all the remaining Sybarites were destroyed. Thurii, after this, atITALIA. 371

tained to a considerable degree of prosperity, but at a later period it became so weakened by the attacks of the Lucanians and the enmity of the Tarentines that it was compelled to seek the aid of Rome, which was thus involved in a war with Tarentum. About eighty-eight years afterward, Thurii, being nearly deserted, received a Roman colony, and took the name of Copia. The site of Sybaris is at present unknown, but it is generally supposed to have been situated near the modern Torre Brodognato. Thurii should be placed at a greater distance from the sea, and between the probable position of that town and Terra Nuova.

Having now examined the whole of the eastern coast of Lucania, we will cross over to the other sea in order to describe the cities and other remarkable places on its shores. The Silărus, which divides this province from the Picentini, rose in that part of the Apennines which belonged to the Hirpini, and after receiving the Tanager, now the Negro, and the Calor, now Calore, emptied into the Sinus Pastanus. The waters of this river possessed the property of incrusting, by means of a calcareous deposit, any pieces of wood or twigs thrown into them. At its mouth was the Portus Alburnus. A little farther from the coast was a celebrated temple of Juno Argiva, which was plundered by the Cilician pirates. Advancing from this point, we come to, 1. Posidônia, the ruins of which are so celebrated under its Latin name of Pastum. This city was situated about four miles southeast of the mouth of the Silarus, and near the coast of the Sinus Pastanus. Its origin is involved in obscurity. Solinus makes it a colony of Dorians, while others maintain, though apparently without any authentic grounds, that it was first a Phænician settlement, and was afterward colonized by the Dorians. Others, again, ascribe its foundation to the Etrurians, and the massive construction of its walls, as well as the fact of Etruscan medals having been dug up here, would seem to favor this idea. Strabo says it was built by a colony of Sybarites, close to the shore in the first instance, but that it was afterward removed farther inland. There is every reason, however, to believe that Pæstum existed as a city before it was colonized by the Sybarites. The medals of this place show by their devices that the inhabitants were a sea-faring people. Strabo says that the Lucanians took

this city from the Sybarites, and that the Romans afterward took it from the Lucanians. At the end of the war against Pyrrhus, a Roman colony was sent to Posidonia, and after this Livy speaks of Pæstum as a town allied to Rome. faithful to Rome in the second Punic war, and subsequently obtained the rank of a municipium. Nothing is known of it under the empire, but the surrounding country is celebrated by Virgil, Ovid, and other Roman poets, for the abundance and luxuriance of its roses, and the "Pæstanæ Valles" are extolled for their fertility, a quality which they have retained to this very day. The country southeast of Pæstum, as far as Cape Palinuro, is one of the finest districts in the kingdom of Naples. Bishops of Pastum are mentioned in the annals of the Church in the fifth century of our era. In the tenth century, the Saracens, having invaded this part of the country, formed a settlement at Acropoli, in the neighborhood of Pastum. was the period when they devastated Beneventum, Barium, and other towns, and it seems that Pæstum was ruined about the same time. In the following century, after the expulsion of the Saracens, King Roger the Norman ransacked the temples and other buildings at Pæstum of their marble and other ornaments, to adorn the cathedral which he raised at Salerno. The ruins of Pæstum, however, still remain to this day noble records of the genius and taste which inspired the architects of Greece.

2. Petilia, to the southeast, called Petilia Lucana, to distinguish it from another place of the same name in Bruttium. Its ruins exist on the Monte della Stella. 3. Elea, called also Velia, and Hyele, to the south of the preceding, and about three miles from the left bank of the River Heles or Elees, now the Alento. It was founded by the Phocæans of Asia Minor, after they had left their native city to avoid the Persian yoke, and had first tried a settlement at Alalia in Corsica. The Phocæans. according to Strabo, called the new city Hyĕle ('Υέλη), but in the time of the geographer this form of the name had been changed to Elea ('Eléa). The Romans, on the other hand, wrote the name Velia, as formed from the earlier appellation 'Yéhn, with the substitution of the v sound for the aspirate. From the excellence of its constitution, the new colony was enabled to resist with success the aggressions of both the Posidoniatæ and the Lucani, though very inferior to these adversaries

both in population and fertility of soil. Velia is particularly celebrated for the school of philosophy founded within its walls by Xenophanes of Colophon, but brought to its highest rank by Parmenides and Zeno. It was a bold attempt to construct a system of the universe on metaphysical principles. is known by the name of the Eleatic. When the Romans formed the design of erecting a temple to Ceres, they sought a priestess from Velia, where that goddess was held in great veneration, to instruct them in the rites and ceremonies to be observed in her worship. This place subsequently became a Roman maritime colony, as may be inferred from Livy, but the period when this occurred is not mentioned. Velia is often spoken of in the letters of Cicero, who occasionally resided there with his friends Trebatius and Thalna. The situation of the place seems to have been considered very healthy, since Plutarch says that Paulus Æmilius was ordered thither by his physicians, and that he derived considerable benefit from the air. Horace was also recommended to visit Velia for a disorder in his eyes. In Strabo's time this ancient town was greatly reduced, its inhabitants being forced, from the poorness of the soil, to betake themselves to fishing and other sea-faring occupations. The ruins of Velia stand about half a mile from the sea, on the site now called Castelamare della Bruca.

4. Pyxus ($\Pi \nu \xi o \tilde{\nu} \varsigma$, $o \tilde{\nu} \nu \tau o \varsigma$), called by the Latins Buxentum. This was the name of a promontory, river, and city, and the appellation alludes to the adjacent country's being covered with box-trees (πύξος, buxus). The promontory is now called Capo degl' Infreschi. The city, according to Diodorus Siculus, was founded by Micythus, prince of Rhegium and Zancle, about 471 B.C. Stephanus Byzantinus, however, makes it of Œnotrian origin. The Romans colonized it A.U.C. 558, calling it Buxentum, and afterward sent a new colony to it when the previous one had nearly failed. The site of this place appears to have been near the modern Policastro. The River Puxus is now the Busento. 5. Blanda, to the southeast, and on the Aquilian Way. Its site corresponds to the modern Maratea. 6. Laüs, the last Lucanian city on this coast, situate on a gulf and river of the same name. The river is now the Lao; the Sinus Laus is now the Gulf of Policastro. This city was a colony of Sybarites. According to Strabo, the allied Greeks

met with a signal defeat in the vicinity of this place from the Lucanians, a disaster which probably led to the downfall of their several towns. In Pliny's time Laüs no longer existed. It is thought that Scalea represents this ancient city.

We will now retrace our steps toward the northern frontier of Lucania, in order to give some account of the towns situate in the interior of the province. Near the junction of the Silarus and Tanager, and between the latter river and the Calor. is a ridge of mountains known formerly by the name of Mons Alburnus, and new commonly called Monte di Postiglione, and sometimes Alburno. Beginning, then, from the northern frontier, we come to, 1. Vulceium or Volcentum, now Buccino. to the north of the Tanager. 2. Numistro, to the northeast of the preceding, and near the frontiers of Apulia. A battle was fought here between Marcellus and Hannibal. Its site is near the modern Muro. 3. Potentia, some distance to the southeast of the preceding, and near the modern Potenza. This was a considerable city, as may be inferred from the ruins which are yet standing. Near it were the Campi Veteres, at the modern Vietri, where Tiberius Gracchus was slain by a band of treacherous Lucanians. 4. Marciliana, to the southwest, on the Aquilian Way. It was, in fact, a suburb to the more ancient and important town of Cosilynum, and Cassiodorus informs us that in his time a great concourse of people used to assemble here annually on the day of St. Cyprian. This custom, he affirms, was of a very ancient date, being, in fact, a remnant of pagan superstition. The site of this place corresponds to La Scala, on the right bank of the Negro, the ancient Tanager. 5. Cosilynum, one of the prafecture of Lucania, situate not far from the modern Padula. 6. Abellinum Marsicum, to the northeast of the preceding, and near the sources of the Aciris. It corresponds to Marsico Ve-7. Grumentum, to the southeast of the preceding, a place of some note, and mentioned by Livy as one of the towns of Lucania which Hannibal wished to recover from the Romans. and near which he fought an unsuccessful battle with them. It was subsequently colonized by Augustus. This place was situate near the modern Saponara, where extensive ruins are still visible. 8. Nerulum, to the southeast, and near the southern frontier of Lucania. According to Livy, it was one of the

first towns of Lucania conquered by the Romans. It appears to have been situate near La Rotonda.

13. BRUTTIUM.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, HISTORY, &c.

I. The Bruttii were called by the Greeks Βρέττιοι, and the name is said to have signified in the Lucanian language "Renegades" or "Deserters," the Bruttians being the descendants of some refugee slaves and shepherds of the Lucanians, who, having concealed themselves from pursuit in the forests and mountains with which this part of Italy abounds, became, in process of time, powerful from their numbers and ferocity.

II. This savage race is represented as pouring forth to attack their Lucanian masters, and to molest the Grecian settlers on the coast of either sea; and so formidable had they at last rendered themselves, that the Lucani were compelled to acknowledge their independence, and to cede to them all the country south of the rivers Laws and Crathis. This advancement of the Bruttii to the rank of an independent nation is supposed by Diodorus Siculus to have taken place about 397 years after the foundation of Rome.

III. The enterprising and turbulent spirit of this people was next directed against the Greek colonies; and in proportion as these were rapidly declining, from jealousies and internal dissensions, and still more from luxury and indolence, their antagonists were acquiring a degree of vigor and stability which soon enabled them to accomplish their downfall. The Greek towns on the western coast, from being weaker and more detached from the main body of the Italiot confederacy, first fell into the hands of the Bruttii.

IV. The principal cities of which this league was composed now became alarmed for their own security, and sought the aid of the Molossian Alexander against these dangerous enemies, with whom the Lucanians also had learned to make common cause. This gallant prince, by his talents and valor, for a time checked the progress of these active barbarians, and even succeeded in penetrating into the heart of their country; but after his death, which occurred before the fatal walls of Pandosia, they again advanced, like a resistless torrent, and soon reduced the whole of the peninsula to the south of the Laüs and Crathis, with the exception of Crotona, Locri, and Rhegium.

V. At this period, Rome, the universal foe, put an end at once to their conquests and their independence. After sustaining several defeats, both the Lucani and Bruttii are said to have finally submitted to L. Papirius Cursor, two years after Pyrrhus had withdrawn his troops from Italy.

VI. The arrival of Hannibal once more, however, roused the Bruttii to exertion. They flocked eagerly to the victorious standard of that leader, who was by their aid enabled to maintain his ground in this corner of Italy when all hope of final success seemed to be extinguished. But the consequences of this protracted warfare proved fatal to the country in which it was carried on, many of the Bruttian towns being totally destroyed, and others so much impoverished as to retain scarcely a vestige of their former prosperity. To these misfortunes was added the weight of Roman vengeance; for that power, when freed from her formidable enemy, too well remembered the support she had derived from the Bruttii for many years to allow their defection to pass unheeded. A decree was therefore passed, reducing this people to a most abject state of dependence: they were pronounced incapable of being employed in a military capacity, and their services were confined to the menial offices of couriers and letter-carriers.

VII. Bruttium, as a Roman province, had the same extent as previously, be ing bounded on the north by Lucania, from which it was separated by the rivers Laus and Crathis; on the east by the Sinus Tarentinus and Mare Ionium; on the south by the Mare Ionium; and on the west by the Mare Inferum.

(B.) CITIES OF BRUTTIUM.

Commencing from the mouth of the Crathis, on the eastern coast, we come to, 1. Portus Roscia, the haven of the Thurians. According to Procopius, the Romans constructed a fortress higher up the country, called Roscianum, now Rossano. passes led from this to the Lucanian and Bruttian mountains. According to Holstenius, these are the defiles of Morano and Roseto. The River Hylias, just below Portus Roscia, formed the line of separation between the territories of Thurii and Crotona, and answers now to a rivulet named Calonato. The Traens which follows is now the Trionto, and is rendered memorable for the bloody defeat of the Sybarites on its banks, already alluded to. Some years afterward, a remnant of this unhappy people were again attacked on this spot, and destroyed by the Bruttii. 2. Crimisa, just below the Crimisa Promontorium, or Capo dell' Alice. It was said to have been founded by Philoctetes after the Trojan war, and contained what was called It subsequently changed its name to Paternum, and became a bishop's see after the fall of the Western Empire. The modern Ciro is supposed to answer to it. 3. Petilia, below the preceding, and said to have been likewise founded by Philoctetes. It occupied the site of the modern Strongoli. This small town gave a striking proof of its fidelity to the Romans in the second Punic war, by the long siege which it stood against Hannibal, amid all the horrors of famine. It did not surrender until all the leather in the place, as well as the bark and young shoots of the trees, and the very grass in the streets, had been consumed for subsistence. The River Newthus, now Nieto, below Petilia, was fabled to have derived its name from the circumstance of the captive Trojan women having there set fire to the Grecian fleet ($va\tilde{v}_{\zeta}$, $a\tilde{t}\theta\omega$), a circumstance alluded to by many of the ancients, but with great diversity of opinion as to the scene of the event. The use which Virgil has made of this tradition is well known.

4. Croto (Κρότων), called by the Romans more commonly Crotona, and now Cotrone, was situate on the River Æsarus,

and was one of the most celebrated and powerful states of Magna Gracia. Its foundation is ascribed to Myscellus, an Achæan leader, soon after Sybaris had been colonized by a party of the same nation, which was about 715 B.C. According to some traditions, however, the origin of Crotona was much more ancient, and it was said to derive its name from the hero Croton. The residence of Pythagoras and his most distinguished followers in this city, together with the overthrow of Sybaris which it accomplished, and the exploits of Milo and several other Crotoniat victors in the Olympic games, contributed in a high degree to raise the fame of Crotona. Its climate, also, was proverbially excellent, and supposed to be particularly calculated for producing in its inhabitants that robust frame of body requisite to insure success in those contests. Hence it was commonly said that the last wrestler of Crotona was the first of the other Greeks. This city was also celebrated for its school of medicine, and was the birth-place of the celebrated Democedes. However brilliant an epoch in the history of Crotona its triumph over Sybaris may appear, that event must be regarded also as the term of her own greatness and prosperity, for from this period it is said that luxury and the love of pleasure, the usual consequences of great opulence, soon obliterated all the good effects which had been produced by the wisdom and morality of Pythagoras. As a proof of the remarkable change which took place in the warlike spirit of the people, it is said that on their being subsequently engaged in hostilities with the Locrians, an army of 130,000 Crotoniats was routed by 10,000 of the enemy on the banks of the Sagras. Such, indeed, was the loss they experienced in this battle, that, according to Strabo, their city henceforth rapidly declined, though it was still a considerable city when Pyrrhus invaded Italy, extending on both sides of the Æsarus, and its walls embracing a circumference of twelve miles. But the consequences of the war which ensued between that king and the Romans proved so ruinous to its prosperity, that above one half of its extent became deserted, and the Æsarus, which previously flowed through the town, now ran at some distance from the inhabited part, which was again separated from the fortress by a vacant space. During the second Punic war it was besieged by a combined force of Carthaginians and Bruttians, and the inhabitants, who were reduced to 20,000, were unable to defend the large extent of their walls. They surrendered, and afterward sought a refuge among their ancient enemies, the Locrians. The Romans subsequently sent a colony to this place. It became afterward of some consequence in the time of Belisarius, on account of its position, and was made by him a chief point in his operations along the coast. Its harbor, however, does not seem to have been any of the best, or well calculated to afford protection against storms and winds. It was rather what Polybius calls a summer harbor, and was formed by the mouth of the Æsārus. This little river is entitled to notice from its banks being made the scene of some of the prettiest bucolies in Theocritus.

Passing the celebrated Lacinian Promontory, of which we have elsewhere spoken (page 256), and the three promontories of the *Iapyges*, of which mention has also been made (ib.), we first find several navigable rivers, the Targines, now Tacina; the Arocha, now the Crocha or Crocchio; the Semirus, now Simmari; and the Crotălus, now Corace. Near this lastmentioned stream we find the station marked in the Theodosian table as Castra Hannibalis, and noticed by Pliny as situate at the narrowest part of the isthmus which terminates Italy. We then come to, 5. Scyllacium or Scylletium, a Greek city of considerable note, now Squillace. According to Strabo, it was colonized by the Athenians under Mnestheus. It was the birth-place of Cassiodorus. Virgil calls the place "Navifragum," an epithet which alludes either to the rocky and dangerous shore in its vicinity, or else to the frequent storms which prevailed in this quarter. The elder Dionysius at one time entertained the design of carrying a fortification across the isthmus in this quarter, which would have been the means of cutting off the more southern Greeks from communicating with their allies to the north of this narrow peninsula; but he was prevented by the latter from executing his plan. The distance across was not more than twenty miles. Passing down the coast, we come to the little river Elleporus, now Callipari, rendered memorable from a severe defeat sustained by the allied Greeks on its banks in an engagement with the forces of the elder Dionysius. This is said to have occurred the same year that Rome was taken by the Gauls.

Passing the Cocintum Promontorium (p. 256), we come to, 6. Caulon or Caulonia, originally, perhaps, Aulon, on the left bank of the Sagras, and one of the earliest colonies founded by the Achæans on these shores. It held a distinguished rank among the republics of Magna Græcia, and was in alliance with Crotona and Sybaris. It was razed to the ground by Dionysius, who removed the inhabitants to Syracuse, while their former territory was added to that of the Locrians. 'Caulonia, however, must have subsequently risen from its ruins, since we are told that during the war with Pyrrhus it espoused the cause of that prince, and was, in consequence, attacked and pillaged by the Mamertini, who were the allies of the Romans. The inhabitants migrated to Sicily, and the town was occupied by the Bruttii, who defended it against the Romans in the second Punic war. We learn from Virgil that the town stood on an elevated situation. Its site is placed by the Italian topographers at Castro Vetere, but this requires confirmation. It was on the banks of the Sagras that the memorable overthrow of the Crotoniats took place, when they were defeated by a force of 10,000 Locrians, with a small body of Rhegians. So extraordinary a result did this appear, that it gave rise to the proverbial expression, ἀληθέστερα τῶν ἐπὶ Σάγρα. The modern Sagra answers to the ancient Sagras.

7. Locri, one of the most ancient and distinguished republics of Magna Græcia. According to Strabo, this city was built, not long after the foundation of Crotona and Syracuse, by a body of Locrians from the Crissæan Gulf, who are designated by the name of Ozŏlæ. They first settled near the promontory of Zephyrium, and thence obtained the appellation of Epizephyrii, by which they were distinguished from the Locrians of Greece. They removed, however, from this position three or four years afterward, and built another city on a height named Mount Esopis. According, however, to Ephorus, another Greek writer, the city was founded by a band of Locri Opuntii and Epicnēmīdii. Locri was mainly indebted for its prosperity and fame to the institutions of its great lawgiver Zaleucus. His laws, which, according to the assertion of Demosthenes, continued in full force for the space of two hundred years, are said to have been a judicious selection from the Cretan, Lacedæmonian, and Areopagitic codes, to which were added several original enactments. From its greater proximity to Sicily, Locri appears to have been involved in the politics of that country at an earlier period than the other Italian cities. In the Peloponnesian war, the Locrians are generally mentioned as the allies of the Syracusans, and were consequently exposed to hostilities on the part of Athens. The alliance which this city contracted not long after with Dionysius the elder, who had espoused Doris, the daughter of one of its principal citizens, is regarded by Aristotle as the source of many of the subsequent troubles of Locri. And more particularly was this seen in the case of the younger Dionysius, who, on his expulsion from Syracuse, having found refuge here, secretly introduced a number of his satellites, and made himself master of the place, when he gave loose to all the vicious propensities of his nature. He was afterward reinstated in Syracuse by a revolution, and the citizens of Locri were thus delivered from an obnoxious tyrant. Pyrrhus invaded Italy, Locri was occupied by a part of his forces; but, on his crossing over into Sicily, it joined the Romans, after having put the Epirot garrison to the sword. This offence was visited with the severest vengeance of the incensed monarch. In the second Punic war it sided with Hannibal, but toward the close of the contest it fell into the hands of the Romans, who left a garrison there under the command of Q. Pleminius. The conduct of this officer and his troops was so cruel and licentious that the senate were compelled to interfere. minius was removed, and ended his days in prison at Rome. The site of Locri is to be found near the modern Gerace. modern town stands on a hill, which is probably the Mons Esopis of Strabo, and where the citadel was doubtless placed.

8. Orra or Uria, to the south, on the coast, said to have been founded by Idomeneus. Its site has been fixed at a spot called Palazzi. The Zephyrium Promontorium, below this place, is now Capo di Bruzzano, and the Herculis Promontorium, to the southwest, is now Capo Spartivento.

Having now concluded the topography of the eastern coast, we will proceed to describe that portion of the province situated on the *Mare Inferum*, commencing from the River *Laüs*, which, as before remarked, separated the Lucanian from the Bruttian territory. Starting from this point, we come to, 1. *Cerillæ*, now *Cirella Vecchia*. 2. *Patycus*, now *Paola*, about twenty-

four miles south of the preceding. 3. Clampetia or Lampetia. as the name was written by the Greeks (Λαμπέτεια), probably the modern Amantea. 4. Terina, on the left bank of the Sabătus, now the Savato. This was an ancient Greek city, and said to have been a colony from Crotona. It gave name to the adjacent gulf, of which we have already spoken (page 268). Strabo informs us that this city was destroyed by Hannibal when he found he could no longer retain it. It was subsequently, however, restored, and is mentioned by Pliny and Ptolemy. Its ruins are close to the town of *Nocera*, about five miles from the coast. 5. Temesa or Tempsa, to the southwest. This was a town of great antiquity, and was celebrated for its copper mines, to which Homer is supposed to allude in the Odyssey (i., 184). This circumstance, however, is doubtful, as there was a town of the same name in Cyprus. In Strabo's time these mines appear to have been exhausted. The site of this place has been fixed by Cluverius at Torre Loppa. 6. Hipponium, a city of great importance and celebrity, situate on the coast. It was founded by the Epizephyrian Locri. Dionysius the elder destroyed it, and removed the inhabitants to Syracuse. It was restored, however, by the Carthaginians, who were then at war with that prince. Subsequently it fell into the hands of the Bruttii, from whom it was wrested for a short time by Agathocles. It became a Roman colony A.U.C. 560, and took the name of Vibo Vălentia. Frequent mention is made of this town by Cicero, who resided here for some time, on the estate of his friend Sica, previous to his quitting Italy, whence he had been exiled. In the vicinity of this place was a grove and meadow of singular beauty, also a building said to have been constructed by Gelon of Syracuse, and called Amalthæa's horn. It was here, probably, that the women of the city and its vicinity assembled on certain festivals, to gather flowers and twine garlands for their hair in honor of Proserpina, who had herself, as was said, frequented this spot for the same purpose, and to whom a magnificent temple was here erected. The site of Hipponium answers to that of the modern town of Monte Leone.

7. Medma or Mesma, on the right bank of the River Mesima, now Medama, which retains some traces of the ancient name. This was a city of considerable importance, and of Greek origin,

having been colonized, together with Hipponium, by the Locrians. Strabo says it derived its name from a fountain in its vicinity. The ruins of this city are to be seen between Nicotera and the River Medama. Passing down the coast, we come to the famous rock of Scylla, to which antiquity attached such ideas of terror, and opposite was the equally famous Charybdis. According to modern travellers, Scylla is a lofty rock on the Calabrian shore, with some caverns at the bottom, which, by the agitation of the waves, emits sounds resembling the barking The only danger is when the current and wind impel vessels toward the rock. Charybdis is not a whirlpool or involving vortex, but a spot where the waves are greatly agitated by pointed rocks. Strabo speaks of the Scyllaum as an elevated cliff, surrounded on nearly every side by the sea, but connected with the land by a low isthmus easily accessible on either side. This peninsula was inclosed by a fortification, which Anaxilaus, tyrant of Rhegium, raised against the Tyrrhe-By this means was formed a commodious haven, where he stationed his fleets in order to defend the straits. We must, therefore, ascribe to this prince the origin of the town of Scyllæum. The isthmus has now disappeared, owing to the encroachments of the sea, caused by the current which sets in toward the Italian coast.

8. Rhēgium, now Reggio, one of the most celebrated and flourishing cities of Magna Græcia, and known to have been founded nearly 700 B.C. by a party of Zancleans from Sicily, together with some Chalcidians of Eubea. According to Æschylus, the name of Rhegium ('Pήγιον) was supposed to refer to the great catastrophe which had once separated Italy and Sicily (ῥήγνυμ, "to break"). We may collect from different passages that the constitution of Rhegium was at first an oligarchy. Charondas, the celebrated lawgiver of Cătăna in Sicily, is also said to have given laws to the Rhegians. This. form of government lasted nearly two hundred years, until Anaxilaus, the second of that name, usurped the sole authority, and became tyrant of Rhegium, about 496 years B.C. Under this prince the prosperity of Rhegium reached its highest elevation. Having subsequently recovered its independence, it became a prey to adverse factions, and did not obtain a stable government until after many revolutions in its internal ad-

ministration. At a subsequent period it was taken and destroyed by Dionysius the elder, and the remaining inhabitants were removed to Sicily. Some years after it was partly restored by the younger Dionysius, who gave it the name of Phæbia. This place sustained great injury at a later period from the repeated shocks of an earthquake, which occurred not long before the Social War, or 90 B.C. It was, in consequence, nearly deserted, when Augustus, after having conquered Sextus Pompeius, established here a considerable body of veteran troops; and Strabo affirms that, in his day, this colony was in a flourishing state. Hence, also, the appellation of Julium, which later authors have applied to designate this town. Few cities of Magna Græcia could boast of having given birth to so many distinguished characters as Rhegium, whether statesmen, philosophers, men of letters, or artists of celebrity. Among the first were many followers of Pythagoras, who are enumerated by Iamblichus in his life of that philosopher. Theagenes, Hippys, Lycus, surnamed Butera, and Glaucus were historians; Ibycus, Cleomenes, and Lycus, the adoptive father of Lycophron, were poets; Clearchus and Pythagoras are spoken of as statuaries of great reputation; the latter, indeed, is said to have even excelled the famous Myron.

What relates to the interior of Bruttium will not detain us long. We may enumerate the following: 1. Consentia, now Cosenza, near the sources of the River Crathis. This was a town of great note, and is designated by Strabo as the capital of the Bruttii. It was taken by Hannibal after the surrender of Petilia, but again fell into the hands of the Romans toward the end of the war. 2. Pandŏsia Bruttiorum, so called to distinguish it from Pandosia in Lucania. It lay to the southwest of Consentia. This place is known in history as having witnessed the defeat and death of Alexander, king of Epirus. The ruins of Pandosia are probably to be sought near the village of Mendocino, between Cosenza and the sea. Near Pandosia was the River Achĕron, now Maresanto or Arconti, of which mention is made in the story of the King of Epirus. It unites with the Crathis near Consentia.

To the south of Consentia, the country of the Bruttii was anciently covered with a vast extent of forest, known by the name of Sila Silva. These woods, which consisted chiefly of

fir, were celebrated for the quantity of pitch which they yielded. Dioscorides and many other writers have noticed the *pix Bruttia*, or "Bruttian pitch." Strabo describes the *Sīla Silva* as occupying an extent of seven hundred stadia, or eighty-sevenmiles, from the neighborhood of Rhegium northward. These immense forests may probably, in ancient times, have furnished the Tyrrheni with timber for their fleets, as we know they afterward did to the sovereigns of Sicily, and to the Athenians.

The only town of note which the Bruttii appear to have possessed in this district was *Mamertium*, placed by Strabo apparently in the interior of the province, above Locri and Rhegium. But, though this writer has ascribed it to the Bruttii, it is more natural to suppose that it was a colony of those Campanian mercenaries who derived their name from Mamers, the Oscan Mars, and are known to have served under Agathocles and other princes of Sicily. Here they seized upon the city of Messana by surprise, which circumstance gave rise to the second Punic war. We know that the Mamertini were employed by the Romans against Pyrrhus, whom, on his return from Sicily into Italy, they ventured to attack in the woods and defiles above Rhegium. The site of this place is supposed to correspond to the modern *Oppido*.

We have now completed our sketch of *Italia*, and will proceed to the islands of *Sicilia*, *Corsica*, and *Sardinia*, together with the Æŏliæ or *Vulcāniæ Insulæ*, adjacent to the first.

I. SĬCĬLĬA.

(A.) NAME.

I. The island of Sicilia was so called from the Sicüli, an ancient race, who came from Latium, and, having crossed over into this island, gave it their name. It was also sometimes styled Sīcānia, from the Sīcāni, an early race, whom the Sicūli, on their arrival in the island, found already established there, and whom they drove to the western and southern parts of the same.

II. Sicily also obtained appellations from its triangular shape. Thus it was called *Trīnacria* (Τρινακρία) by the Greeks, from its three promontories (τρεῖς ἄκραι), which give it this triangular form; and, for the same reason, the Latin poets often employ

the name *Triquetra*. According to Strabo, the appellation of *Trinacria* was gradually changed, for euphony'sake, into *Trinakia*, although some modern scholars regard this latter form of the name as the earlier one, and seek to connect it with the *Thrinakia* of Homer.

III. The three main promontories here referred to are *Pelōrum*, *Pachȳnum*, and *Līlȳbæum*, to which we will presently revert; the first of these being the northeastern cape, the second the southeastern one, while the third is situate at the southwestern extremity of the island.

(B.) SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF SICILY.

I. The legends of the Greeks speak of the giants, Cyclopes and Lastrygones, who inhabited Sicily previous to the epoch of the Trojan war. The Sicāni are next mentioned, who are said by some to have been Iberians (Thucyd., vi., 2) from the River Sīcānus in Ibēria. Hence some modern writers regard the Sicani as a Celtic race, and seek to identify the Sicanus with the Sequana or Seine.

II. According to tradition, Ceres taught the Sicani to plough the ground and sow corn; Aristæus taught them to cultivate the olive-tree and rear bees; Dædalus the art of building, while his nephew is said to have invented the saw and other mechanical instruments. Hercules next visited Sicily, built Soloïs and Motya, as well as other towns, established laws, and repressed and punished robbers. Through the veil of these legends it is easy to perceive the history of the transition of Sicily from a savage to a civilized state.

III. The Siculi (Σικελοί) next came from Italy, and occupied the eastern part of Sicily, about three hundred years before the Greeks made any settlements in the island. The Siculi drove the Sicani to the southern and western parts of the island, to which they gave their name Sicelia. They built Zancle, Enna, Erbessus, and Hybla. The Phænicians are said to have colonized Panormus, Soloïs, and Motya. Then came the Elymæi, who are said to have built Elyma, Entella, and Egesta.

IV. In the year 750 B.C., a colony of Chalcidians from Eubœa, and Megarians, led by the Athenian Thucles, landed on the eastern coast, where they found the country deserted, the Siculi having withdrawn to the interior in consequence of the irruptions of the Etruscans or Tyrrhenians. These Greek colonists built the town of Naxos.

V. In the following year a party of Corinthians and other Dorians, led by Archias, landed in the island of Ortygia, defeated the Siculi who inhabited it, and laid the foundation of the great city of Syracuse. Four years later, the Greeks of Naxos drove the Siculi out of Leontini and Cătăna, and occupied both those towns. About 712, a party of Rhodians and Cretans built Gēla on the southern coast. In course of time, both Syracuse and Gela sent colonies to other parts of the island; a colony from Gela built Agrigentum, or, as the Greeks called it, Acrăgas, and the Syracusans colonized Cămărina. A colony of Megarians settled at Hybla, and afterward built Sēlīnus, 651 B.C. Colonies from Zancle founded Myla and Hīmēra. The interior of the country remained in possession of the Siculi, under their respective princes.

VI. The Greek towns governed themselves at first as republics, mostly aris-

tocratic, as Dorian towns generally were. Afterward, however, some citizens rose to be tyrants or permanent chief magistrates. Hippocrates, tyrant of Gela, was one of the oldest and most distinguished among these. He flourished about 495 B.C. He defeated the Siculi, took Nazos and Leontini, and obliged the Syracusans to give up Camarina. Having joined Anaxilaus, tyrant of Rhegium, they surprised Zancle and shared the plunder between them. Anaxilaus then invited a party of Messenians to colonize Zancle.

VII. Phalāris was tyrant of Agrigentum from about B.C. 565 to 550. Many stories, probably exaggerated, are told of his cruelty. He, however, extended and consolidated the power of Agrigentum. Phalaris was killed in a popular insurrection, and about sixty years later Thēron was tyrant of Agrigentum. He raised most of the splendid buildings of that city, and conquered Himēra, thus extending the dominion of Agrigentum from the southern to the northern coast of the island. His daughter Demarata married Gēlon, tyrant of Syracuse, who was the most illustrious of the early Sicilian princes. Gelon and Theron together defeated the first invasion of the Carthaginians, 480 B.C., called in by the people of Selinus, and also by Therillus, tyrant of Himera, who had been driven away by Theron, and had taken refuge at Carthage. Syracuse and Agrigentum were now the preponderating states in Sicily. Gelon was succeeded in Syracuse by his brother Theron, tyrant of Gela, who died 467 B.C. His successor Thrasybūlus being driven away by a popular insurrection, Syracuse adopted a democratic form of government.

VIII. The people of Agrigentum about the same time expelled their tyrant Thrasydæus, and restored the democracy. Empedocles is said to have framed a new constitution for Agrigentum, and Charondas did the same for Tauromenium, Catana, Himera, and the other cities of Chalcidic origin. Between 452 and 440 B.C., Sicily was distracted by an internal war between the Siculi, led by their king, or chief, Deucetius, and the states of Agrigentum and Syracuse. It terminated with the destruction of Trinacria, a stronghold of the Siculi, after a desperate resistance of the inhabitants. The Syracusans next attacked Leontini. This was a war of races, the Doric cities taking part with Syracuse, and the Chalcidic cities with Leontini. The latter, being the weakest, applied to the Athenians for assistance. The first Athenian expedition to Sicily took place 427 B.C., but it led to no decisive result. A truce was concluded between the Sicilian towns, and the Athenians withdrew their fleet, B.C. 425. A new quarrel between Egesta and Sclinus led to the second Athenian expedition to Sicily, 415 B.C., which terminated fatally for the Athenians. The Egestans, being left at the mercy of their enemies of Selinus, applied to Carthage, and this led to the second invasion of Sicily by the Carthaginians (409 B.C.), who, under the command of Hannibal, son of Giscon, took and plundered Selinus, and destroyed its splendid temples. The Siculi of the interior having joined the Carthaginians. their united forces attacked Himera, which stood on the northern coast, took it, and destroyed it completely, two hundred and forty years after its foundation. The Carthaginians next attacked the powerful city of Agrigentum, and after a long siege took and destroyed it.

IX. The Carthaginians now settled in Sicily, where they remained for about a century and a half, till the first Punic war. Syracuse was the only city that effectually opposed Carthage, and prevented its dominion extending over the island. After a succession of wars between Carthage and Syracuse, a treaty was concluded about 340 B.C., by which the Carthaginians retained possession of the western part of the island, the River Hălycus forming the boundary of their dominions on that side. Lilybaum, Eryx, and Panormus were their prin-

cipal settlements, and they flourished by commerce. The other towns formed a league, of which Syracuse was the head. Timoleon invited fresh Greek colonies to repeople Agrigentum, Gela, and other places which had been devastated during the war.

X. The Carthaginians availed themselves of the civil dissensions of Syracuse and of a war between Agathocles, tyrant of that city, and the people of Agrigentum, to interfere as mediators, when, in reward for their mediation, they secured an extension of territory, by which Selinus, Heraclēa, and the Therma Himerenses were included within the Carthaginian possessions, which now extended eastward to the River Himera. Fresh civil dissensions in Syracuse encouraged the Carthaginians again to attack that city, which thereupon called Pyrrhus to its assistance. Pyrrhus came and drove the Carthaginians out of the island, with the exception of the strong town of Lilybæum, which he could not take, and he suddenly abandoned Sicily to its own dissensions and the mercy of the Carthaginians. It was lucky for Syracuse, in this emergency, that it found in Hiero II. a citizen equal to the task of saving his country.

XI. After this followed the struggle in Sicily between the Romans and Carthaginians during the first Punic war. At the end of that war the Romans succeeded the Carthaginians in the possession of the western part of Sicily, Hiero II., king of Syracuse, retaining possession of the eastern part as ally of Rome. His son Hieronymus imprudently quarrelled with Rome during the second Punic war, and the result was the conquest of Syracuse by the Romans after his death; and thus the Romans became possessed of the whole island, which they administered as a province under a prætor. The character of that administration has been transmitted to us through Cicero, in his Orations against Verres, and appears to have been the very worst species of misgovernment.

XII. About 134 B.C. the first Servile War broke out in Sicily, caused by the ill treatment of the numerous slaves, who had become almost the only cultivators of the soil. The insurgents took possession of Enna, ravaged the country around, defeated four Roman prætors, and surprised Tauromenium. They were at last reduced by the consul Rupilius. About 102 B.C. another and more formidable insurrection broke out in Sicily, among a class of men born free, who had been brought thither from other Roman provinces, to be engaged as hired laborers, and were afterward put in chains and confounded with the common slaves. This movement, also, was with difficulty quelled.

XHI. Some time after this came the prætorship of Verres, and his wholesale spoliations of Sicily. During the wars of the triumvirate, Sicily was for a time in possession of Sextus Pompeius, who was at last defeated by Octavianus. After his assumption of supreme power, the latter restored many towns in Sicily, and sent colonies to Tauromenium, Catana, Thermæ Himerenses, Panormus, Syracuse, Himera, and other places. Finding the extent of Syracuse too large to be filled again, he contented himself with colonizing the island of Ortygia, which has constituted ever since the modern town.

XIV. Little is known of the history of Sicily under the empire, except that Christianity spread early into the island, and that a persecution of the Christians took place under Nero. About A.D. 440, the Vandals under Genseric landed from Africa on the western coast of Sicily, and took Lilybæum. Theodoric, the Gothic king of Italy, added Sicily to his continental dominions. In the year 534, Belisarius reconquered Sicily for the Emperor Justinian. In 827 the Saracens landed, and held the island under their sway until 1037, when it passed into the hands of the Normans.

(C.) MOUNTAINS.

I. Mons Eryx, in the northwestern corner of the island, now Monte Santo Juliano. On its summit stood a famous temple of Venus Erycina, and on its western declivity the town of Eryx.

II. Herai Montes ("H ρ aia $\delta \rho \eta$), or Mountains of Juno, in the northeastern part of the island, now Monti Sori.

III. Nebrodes Montes (Νευρώδη ὄρη), the main chain in the island, running along the northern part from east to west, and being, in fact, a continuation of the Apennines. Particular names were also given to different parts of the chain. Thus the Heræi Montes, already mentioned; Mons Neptunius, near Messana; Mons Crates, in the western part of the island; Montes Gemelli, to the south of Panormus, &c.

IV. Ætna Mons, a lofty and celebrated volcano, in the northeastern part of the island, now Mongibello, a name evidently derived from the Italian Monte and the Arabic Jebel (or Gibel), both signifying "a mountain." It is ninety miles in circumference at the base, and attains, by a gradual ascent, to the height of 10,874 feet above the level of the sea. From Catania (the ancient Catana), which stands at the foot, to the summit, is thirty miles, and the traveller passes through three distinct zones, called the cultivated, the woody, and the desert. The summit of the mountain consists of a conical hill, containing a crater about two miles in circumference.

Obs. The silence of Homer respecting the fires of Ætna has given rise to the opinion that the mountain in his time was in the same state of repose as Vesuvius in the days of Strabo. The earliest writers who make mention of Ætna and its eruptions are the author of the Orphic poems (Argonaut., v. 12), and more particularly Pindar (Pyth., i., 21). Thucydides is next in order. He speaks of the stream of lava which in his time (B.C. 426) desolated the territory of Catana. He asserts that this was the third eruption of lava on record since the Greeks had been settled in Sicily. Diodorus Siculus mentions an eruption 396 B.C., which stopped the Carthaginian army in their march from Messana to Syracuse, and obliged them to go round the whole base of the mountain in order to reach Catana. This stream of lava may be seen on the eastern slope of the mountain, near Giane, extending over a breadth of more than two miles, and having a length of twenty-four, from the summit of the mountain to its final termination in the sea. The whole number of eruptions on record is said to be eighty-one.

(D.) PROMONTORIES.

I. Pēlōrum Promontorium, called also Pelōrus, at the northeastern extremity of the island, and now Cape Peloro, or, as some call it, Cape Faro. The strait between it and Italy was called Frētum Sicūlum, now Faro di Messina. This promontory was fabled to have been named from Pelorus, a pilot of Hannibal. It hardly deserves even the appellation of a promontory, being, in fact, a low point of land.

II. Pachȳnum Promontorium, or Pachynus, the southeastern-most extremity of the island, and now Cape Passaro. Its southernmost point is called by Ptolemy Odyssēa Acra ('Οδυσσεῖα *Λκρα).

III. Lilibaum Promontorium, at the western extremity of the island, and now Cape Bao. It is not, in fact, however, a mountain promontory, but a low, flat point of land, rendered dangerous to vessels by its sand-banks and concealed rocks. Lilybaum was the nearest point to Carthage, and the ancient writers pretend that from it vessels could be discerned sailing out of the harbor of that city. The distance across, however, shows the story to be false.

(E.) RIVERS.

On the western coast we have, 1. Onobălus or Taurominius, flowing into the sea just below Naxos. It is now the Alcantara. 2. Acis, now the Iaci, a small stream, celebrated by the ancient poets. Acis, a Sicilian shepherd, who had won the love of the nymph Galatæa, was crushed to death with a fragment of rock by his rival Polyphemus, and was transformed into this stream. 3. Symathus, to the south of Catana, now the Giaretta. Among its tributaries may be named the Cyamosorus, now the Trachino; the Chrysas, now the Dittaino; and the Eryces, now the St. Paolo. 4. Terias, to the south of the Symæthus, and passing in its course a short distance to the north of Leontini, It is now the Guaralunga. The Lissius flows into it from the southwest, and passes close to Leontini on the west. It is now the Lentini, which is also the modern name of Leontini itself. 5. Pantagias, now the Porcari. 6. Alabus or Alabon, now the Cantaro. 7. Anapus, flowing into the harbor of Syracuse, now the Alfeo. 8. Cacyparis, now the Cassibile, to the south

of the Longum Promontorium, now Cape Lungo. 9. Erincus, now the Miranda. 10. Asinārus, now the Falconara, or, according to others, the Fiume di Noto. This last, however, appears to correspond rather to the Phanīcus. 11. Helōrus, now the Abisso.

On the southern and southwestern coast we have, 1. Motycanus, now the Sicali, flowing by Casmenæ, the modern Sicali. 2. Hirminius, now Fiume di Ragusa, entering the sea at Cancana, the modern Longobardo. 3. Hippăris, now the Carina, passing by Camarina. 4. Achātes, now the Drillo. 5. Gěla, now Fiume di Terra Nuova, passing by the city of Gela. 6. Himera, the southern part of which bears the name of Fiume Salso, in consequence of the saline taste communicated to its waters by a salt spring: the northern part is called Fiume di Pollina. This river, as already remarked, separated at one time the Carthaginian dependencies from those of Syracuse. This must not be confounded with another and smaller river of the same name, on the northern coast. 7. Camicus, now the Naro. 8. Acrăgas, now Girgenti, passing by the city of Acragas or Agrigentum. 9. Halycus, now the Platani, and which formed for some time the eastern limit of the Carthaginian dependencies. 10. Crimissus, now Fiume di St. Bartolomeo. On its banks Timoleon defeated the Carthaginians. Some erroneously make it a branch of the Hypsas, and give it the modern name of Belici destro. 11. Hypsas, now the Belici, flowing into the sea a little to the east of Selinus. 12. Halycus, now the Arena, not to be confounded with the larger river of that name already mentioned. 13. Mazărus, now Fiume di Mazzara. 14. Sossius, now Fiume di Marsala, a little below Lilybæum, the modern Marsala.

On the northern coast we have, 1. Bathys, now the Iati, emptying into the Sinus Segestānus. 2. Orēthus, now the Orfeto, emptying into the sea at Panormus, the modern Palermo. 3. Eleuthērus, now the Bajaria, to the east of Panormus. 4. Himēra, now St. Leonardo, emptying into the sea near the city of Himera. 5. Monālus, now the Pollina, falling into the sea near Apollonia, the modern Pollina. 6. Alæsus, now the Pattineo, passing by the city Alæsa. 7. Timæthus, now Fiume di Naso. 8. Helīcon, now Olivero, emptying into the sea near Tyndaris, the modern Tindaro. 9. Long into the sea near Tyndaris, the modern Tindaro.

gānus, now Fiume di Castro Reale, between Tyndāris and Mylæ, the modern Melazzo.

(F.) PRODUCTIVENESS OF SICILY.

I. A country like Sicily, lying between the thirty-sixth and thirty-eighth parallels of latitude, and consequently belonging to the southernmost regions of Europe, and which is well supplied with streams of water from its numerous mountain chains, must of course be a fertile one. Such, indeed, was the character of the island throughout all antiquity; and the Romans, while they regarded it as one of the granaries of the capital, placed it, in point of productiveness, by the side of Italy itself, or rather regarded it as a portion of that country.

II. The staple of Sicily was its excellent wheat. The Romans found it growing wild in the extensive fields of Leontini, and when cultivated it yielded a hundred fold: that which grew in the plains of Enna was regarded as decidedly the best. It was natural enough, therefore, in the early inhabitants of the island, to regard it as the parent country of grain, and they had a deity among them whom they considered as the patroness of fertility, and the discoverer of fertility to man. In this goddess the Greeks recognized their Ceres, and they made Proserpina to have been carried off by Pluto from the rich fields of Enna.

(G.) CITIES OF SIGILY.

On the eastern shore we find, 1. Zancle, so called from the scythe-like form of its harbor (ζάγκλη, "a scythe"). It was founded by the Siculi. A colony from Chalcis in Eubœa afterward settled here, and were joined by some of the inhabitants of Naxos, on the lower part of the eastern coast. Zancle soon became powerful enough to colonize, and founded, in consequence, the cities of Himera and Myla. It was subsequently surprised and plundered by Hippocrates, tyrant of Gela, and Anaxilaus, tyrant of Rhegium. Anaxilaus then invited a party of Messenians to colonize the place, and the city assumed, in consequence, the name of Messana. It soon became flourishing, and was regarded by the Greeks as the key to Sicily, as being the place, namely, to which vessels cruising from Greece to Sicily directed their course on leaving the Iapygian promontory. And yet, notwithstanding these advantages, it was never Town and the should I beller was

other than an unlucky place, and always undergoing changes, and no Greek city ever contained within its wall a more mixed population. It was destroyed by the Carthaginians, and rebuilt by Dionysius of Syracuse, and remained for some time under his sway and that of his son. At a subsequent period it was seized by the Mamertini, a band of Campanian mercenaries, who slew the males, and took the females to wife, and called the city, at the same time, *Mamertini*. The movements of the Mamertines subsequently gave rise to the first Punic war. A Roman colony was afterward planted here. *Messina* now answers to the ancient city.

2. Tauroměnium, now Taormino, between Messana and Catăna, originally built by the Siculi on the rock Taurus, and subsequently colonized by a number of the old inhabitants of the neighboring but ruined city of Naxos. 3. Naxos, to the south of the preceding, founded by a colony of Chalcidians and Megarians, and which, in its turn, founded Leontini. It was destroyed by Dionysius of Syracuse. The old inhabitants, together with some new comers, settled in the immediate vicinity, and colonized Tauroměnium. 4. Cătăna, now Catania, founded by a colony from Chalcis in Eubœa, five years after the settlement of Carthage. Hiero transferred the inhabitants to Leontini, but after his death they returned and once more occupied the place. Dionysius afterward got possession of the city, sold part of the inhabitants as slaves, and settled here a body of his mercenaries called Campani. Catana fell into the hands of the Romans during the first Punic war. 5. Leontini, to the southwest, now Lentini. It was founded by a colony from the city of Naxos, already mentioned, and was situate in the Campi Leontini or Læstrygonii, where Ceres was said to have scattered the wheat. Leontini eventually sank under the superior power of Syracuse, and its quarrel with the latter city led to the first Athenian expedition to Sicily. The celebrated Gorgias was a native of this place. 6. Hybla Parva, a little above Syracuse. It was also denominated Galaotis, but more frequently Megara, or Megara Hyblaa, and was famed for its bees and honey. There were two other places of the same name in Sicily, one south of Mount Ætna, and the second to the east of Gela. 7. Thapsus, a short distance to the east of the preceding, and founded by a colony from it, on a peninsula. now called Penisola dei Bagnoli.

8. Syracusæ, now Siracusa or Syracuse, in the time of its splendor the largest city of Sicily, and one of the largest in the ancient world. It was founded by a party of Corinthians and Dorians, who landed in the island of Ortygia, defeated the Siculi, and made their first settlement there. The history of this city has already been briefly given in the sketch of Sicilian affairs that has preceded. It was taken by Marcellus, the Roman prætor, in the second Punic war, B.C. 212, and was also before this the scene of the memorable defeat of the Athenians, so finely related by Thucydides, in his seventh book of the Peloponnesian war. The ports of Syracuse lay at the south below the town. The smaller port was formed by the town and the north side of the little island Ortygia, in which was the fountain Arethusa, fabled by the poets to communicate with the River Alpheus in Elis, and which last was said to pursue its course to this island by passing under the surface of the sea. The greater harbor, in which was the mouth of the River Anapus, was formed by the southern side of the island and a bay reaching to the promontory called Plemmyrium, in the recess of which promontory was a castle. The city was of a triangular form, and consisted, in fact, of five towns adjoining one another, but separated by walls, and the whole was surrounded by an external wall, the length of which was one hundred and eighty stadia, or above twenty-two English miles. The five divisions of Syracuse were Ortygia, Acradina, Tyche, Epipola, and Neapolis. The part called Acradina was nearest the shore, and its southern extremity formed one side of the smaller port. The southwestern side of the city, lying toward the Anapus, and separated from it by some marshy ground, was called Neapolis, built after the Athenian invasion, between which and Acradina was Tyche, and above Neapolis was Epipolæ. Between the Anapus and Neapolis was a grove and temple of Apollo, who was hence called Temenites. tomia were originally granaries, excavated in the rocks that divide the upper from the lower town. Some of them afterward served as prisons, and, on the surrender of Nicias, the whole of the Athenian prisoners were confined in them, and mostly died. One of these Latomiæ forms the so-called "Ear of Dionysius." After the Roman conquest, the population, having gradually decreased, became restricted to the original Ortygia and the lower part of Aeradina, and all the upper city was already abandoned in the time of Augustus. The Saracens, in the ninth century, plundered and devastated Syracuse, which contained till then 100,000 inhabitants, and from that time Ortygia, or the island, has been the only part inhabited.

9. Helorum, below Syracuse, and near the mouth of the River Helorus. Pliny speaks of it as a mere castle or fortified post, with a good fishery attached to it; but it was, in truth, a very ancient city, and a place of some importance before the arrival of the Greeks. The adjacent country was very fertile and beautiful, and hence Ovid calls it the "Helorian Tempe." The remains of this city are called Muri Ucci.

On the southern and southwestern coast we find, 1. Camarīna, on the River Hippāris, a colony of Syracuse. This was a most unfortunate city, having been several times destroyed, and as often rebuilt. In the neighborhood of this place the river formed a low island, covered at high water, but, when the tide fell, converted into a marsh. This marsh proving unhealthy, the inhabitants consulted an oracle whether they should drain Although the oracle dissuaded them, they drained it, and opened a way to their enemies to come and plunder the city. Hence arose the proverb, from the words of the oracle, μη κίνει Καμαρίναν, "Move not Camarina," applied to those who, by removing one evil, bring on a greater. The ruins of this place are found at Torre di Camerina. 2. Gěla, on the river of the same name, and a short distance from the sea. It was founded by a party of Rhodians and Cretans, 712 B.C., and became one of the most powerful of the Grecian colonies in Sicily, so that, one hundred and eight years after its own foundation, it colonized the celebrated city of Agrigentum. This state of prosperity continued until the time of Gelon, who removed a large part of the inhabitants to Syracuse. After this it sank in importance, and never recovered its former power. Phintias, at length, tyrant of Agrigentum, built a small and commodious city, called after his own name, and transferred to it all the inhabitants of Gela, which from this period (four hundred and four years after its foundation) ceased to exist. On a part of the ancient site stands the modern Terra Nuova. The plains around Gela (Campi Geloi) were famed for their fertility and beauty. 3. Refugium Gela, nearer the coast. The term re-

fugium denoted a place where a vessel might be brought safely to land, although there was there no regular harbor. 4. Agrigentum, called by the Greeks Acrăgas ('Ακράγας), a celebrated city, about three miles from the coast, and deriving its name from the small river Acragas in its immediate vicinity. was a colony of Gela, and was built on a rocky height eleven hundred feet above the level of the sea. It was therefore a place of great strength, and enjoyed also advantages of a commercial nature, having a port or dock-vard (Navale) on the coast, which afforded it the means of easy intercourse with the harbors of Africa and southern Europe. The adjacent country, moreover, was very fertile. From the combined operation of all these causes, Agrigentum soon became a wealthy and powerful city, and inferior to Syracuse alone. It was taken and plundered by the Carthaginians under Hamilcar, and the inhabitants fled to Gela, whence they were transferred to Leontini. It subsequently recovered from this blow, and at the commencement of the second Punic war was one of the most important strongholds which the Carthaginians possessed in the island. After falling into the hands of the Romans, it long continued a flourishing place. Its site corresponds to the modern Girgenti. This place is often mentioned in the poetry of Pindar. It was the birth-place of Empedocles.

5. Heraclea Minoa, at the mouth of the Halycus. The place was first called Minoa, and was a colony of Selinus. It was afterward seized by a band of Spartans, who had migrated from home under a leader named Dorieus, an unsuccessful competitor for the Spartan throne. These Spartans changed the name to Heraclea, and subsequently both names were combined, Heraclea Minoa. Its ruins are found at the mouth of the Camicus, now the Platani. 6. Selīnus, a large and flourishing city, at the mouth of the River Selinus, now the Madiuni. It was founded by a colony from Megara Hyblæa, B.C. 651. Selinus was engaged in almost continual wars with the city of Ægesta or Segeste, on the northern coast, and the latter having called in the aid of the Carthaginians, Selinus was taken, plundered, and in a great measure destroyed. The Carthaginians afterward allowed the fugitive inhabitants to return and reoccupy their city, but it never recovered fully from the blow, and they finally transferred the inhabitants to Lilybæum. The ruins exist near the modern Terra dei Pulci.

On the western and northern coasts we have, 1. Lilybæum, near the promontory of the same name. It was the principal fortress of the Carthaginians in Sicily, and is said to have been founded by them as a stronghold in this quarter against Dionysius of Syracuse. It received as a part of its population the remaining inhabitants of the old Phænician settlement of Motya, lying to the north of it, after that place had been taken by Dionysius. The strength of its fortifications was evinced by its holding out against Pyrrhus, after all the other Carthaginian cities in Sicily had yielded to his arms. It afterward came into the hands of the Romans, by the conditions of the peace which brought the whole of the island into their power, and they subsequently used it as the harbor whence their fleets sailed for the reduction of Carthage. In a later age, Cicero calls it "splendidissima civitas." The modern Marsala occupies the southern half of the ancient city. 2. Motya, to the north, a Phœnician settlement, on a small island, now called di Mezze. Its inhabitants were transplanted by Himilco to Lilybæum, after the former place had been taken by Dionysius. Up to this time it had been an important naval post of Carthage. 3. Drepănum or Drepăna, to the north, now Trapani. It took its name from the curvature of the shore in this quarter resembling a scythe (δρέπανον). This place was founded in the beginning of the first Punic war by the Carthaginian commander Hamilcar, who removed to it the inhabitants of Ervx and other places adjacent. Drepanum and Lilybæum formed the two most important maritime cities held by the Carthaginians in Sicily. Off this place, near the Ægātes Insulæ, was fought the famous naval battle between the Romans, commanded by Lutatius Catulus, and the Carthaginians under Hanno. The Romans gained a decisive victory, which put an end to the first Punic war. Virgil makes Æneas to have lost his father Anchises here, a poetic anachronism worth noting. 4. Eryx, to the northeast, founded, in all probability, by the Phœnicians, and situate on the western declivity of the mountain of the same name. It was destroyed by the Carthaginians in the time of Pyrrhus, who, a short time previous, had taken it by storm, and the inhabitants were removed to Drepanum. It soon revived, however, owing to the celebrity of the adjacent temple of Venus Erycina, which stood on the summit of the

mountain. In the first Punic war it fell into the hands of the Romans, but was surprised by the Carthaginians, and the inhabitants who escaped the slaughter were again removed to Drepanum. The place never recovered from this blow, and was never rebuilt. No traces of the temple remain at the present day. On the summit of the mountain is an ancient castle, supposed to have been erected by the Saracens.

On the northern coast we have, 1. Segeste or Ægesta, to the southeast of Eryx. According to Thucydides, a body of Trojans settled here after the fall of Troy, and, uniting with the Sicani, formed one people under the name of Elymi. They afterward received accessions from some wandering Achæi. Such is the Greek account of the origin of the Elymi and Ægestæi. When the Romans became masters of these parts after the first Punic war, they readily adopted the current tradition respecting the Trojan origin of the people of Ægesta, and the affinity was recognized in the Duilian inscription, where the Ægestæans are styled Cocnati P. R. The true link, in all probability, was a Pelasgic one. The Ægestæans were engaged in a long contest with Selīnus, which proved eventually the cause of overthrow to the latter; but Segeste itself suffered severely at a subsequent period from Agathocles. It became flourishing again, however, under the Roman sway. Its ruins are found near the modern Alcamo. 2. Panormus, now Palermo, to the northeast, built by the Phænicians. The Greek name is derived from the excellence and capaciousness of its harbor $(\pi \tilde{a}\varsigma, \delta\rho\mu o\varsigma)$, and is equivalent to All-port. Panormus was subsequently an important stronghold of the Carthaginians, and the chief station of their fleet. Here, also, were the winter-quarters of their army. The Romans obtained possession of it A.U.C. 500, and it became subsequently one of the free cities of Sicily. 3. Söluntum, a strong harbor, to the southeast, now Castello di Solanto, occupies a part of its site. 4. Himera, founded, according to Thucydides, by a colony from Zancle, and destroyed by the Carthaginians two hundred and forty years after. The Carthaginians subsequently established a number of the old inhabitants in the new city of Therma Himerenses, in the immediate vicinity of Himera. This spot was remarkable for its warm baths. The ruins of Thermæ are now called Termini. Himera was the birth-place of Stesichorus. 5. Cephălædium, a fortified post, belonging to the territory of Himera, afterward to the Carthaginians, now Cefali. 6. Calacta ("beautiful shore," καλή ἀκτή), so called from its situation. Vestiges of it are to the north of the modern Caronia. 7. Agathyrna, a city of the Siculi, near the modern hamlet of Santa Agatha. 8. Tyndāris, founded by Dionysius the elder, and which became in time an important city. It was at the mouth of the Helicon, and answers to the modern Tindaro. Part of the ancient site, however, has been inundated by the sea. 9. Mỹlæ, now Milazzo, at the mouth of the River Mylas, now the Mela. Between this place and a station named Naulŏchus, farther to the east, the fleet of Sextus Pompeius was defeated by that of Octavianus under the command of Agrippa.

In the interior of Sicily we may notice the following: 1. Now, northeast of Mount Ætna, now Noara. 2. Tissa, to the southwest of the preceding, and at the foot of Ætna, now Randazzo. 3. Ætna, on the southern declivity of the mountain of that name. Its first name was Inessa or Inessos. It was changed to that of Ætna when the remains of the colony were settled here, which Hiero had established at Catana, and which had been driven out of the latter place by the Siculi. Hiero had called Catana by the name of Ætna, and the new comers applied it to the city which now furnished them with an abode. At a subsequent period we find the elder Dionysius in possession of the place, a post of much importance to him, since it commanded the road from Catana to the western parts of the island. The ancient site now bears the name of Castro. 4. Centurina. to the southwest, a very ancient city of the Siculi, rich by reason of its agriculture, and its trade in salt and saffron. It was the birth-place of Celsus. The modern Centorbi marks the ancient site. 5. Adranum, to the northwest of the city of Ætna, founded by Dionysius the elder, and named after the native deity Hadranus. It is now Aderno. 6. Hybla Major, a short distance to the southwest of the city of Ætna, on a hill named Hybla, and near the River Symathus. It was famous for its honey and bees. It is now Paterno. There were two other places of the same name in Sicily: one, called Megara Hyblaa, already mentioned, and a little above Syracuse, on the sea-coast; and another, called Hybla Heræa, to the east of Gela.

This last is now Calata Girone. 7. Agyrium, some distance to the west of the city of Etna, and the birth-place of Diodorus Siculus. Its ruins are in the vicinity of St. Filippo d'Agyro. 8. Enna, to the southwest of the preceding, and one of the most ancient seats of the Siculi. It was celebrated over the whole island, not so much for its size and opulence as for its being the centre of the worship of Ceres. The adjacent country was remarkable for its fertility, and in the plains of Enna Proserpina was fabled to have been sporting when she was carried off by Pluto. Enna was regarded as the navel of Sicily, and here Ceres and Proserpina had one of their most sacred temples. The site of the ancient place is occupied by the modern Castro Giovanni, but nearly all traces of the blooming meads in its vicinity have disappeared.

9. Palīca, southwest of Leontini, a strong place of the Siculi, and having in its vicinity the famous lakes of the deities called Palīci. These lakes were properly the craters of extinct volcanoes, and of unknown depth, and emitted a strong sulphureous stench. If one swore by these waters and perjured himself, it was supposed to be followed by some supernatural punishment. The city of Palīca was already in ruins in the time of Diodorus Siculus. 10. Triōcāla, southeast of Selinus, and near the River Crimissus. It was at one time the residence of Tryphon, king of the slaves, in the Sicilian slave rebellion; and it derived its name from its threefold advantages (τρία καλά) of strong situation, good water, and extensive trade in wine and oil. Its ruins may still be seen near the modern Calata Bellotta.

Each of the three main promontories of Sicily had a celebrated temple either on or near it. At *Pelōrum* was that of Neptune, at *Pachḡnum* that of Apollo, and on Mount Eryx, not far from *Lilybæum*, was that of Venus. The ancient poets fabled that the giant Typhoeus was buried under Sicily, Pelorum and Pachynum being placed on either arm, Lilybæum on his feet, and Ætna on his head, and that the earthquakes and eruptions of Ætna were caused by his attempts to move.

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II. ÆŎLIÆ INSŬLÆ.

I. These were situate to the north of Sicily, and were called Æöliæ, from their having formed the fabled domain of Æölus, god of the winds. They were also called Vulcāniæ (in Greek Hephæstiādes), from their volcanic character; and likewise Lipārēæ, from Lipāra, the largest of the number.

II. The group consists of seven islands, and their names, according to Mela, were as follows: Lipăra, Osteodes, Heraclēa, Didyme, Phanicūsa, Hièra, and Strongyle. Pliny and Diodorus Siculus, however, substitute Ericūsa and Euon-ymus for Osteodes and Heraclea.

III. These islands are supposed by some to be the same with Homer's $\Pi\lambda\alpha\gamma\kappa$ - $\tau\alpha i$, or "wandering islands." The island of $Lip\check{a}ra$ was the largest and most important of the group, and is now Lipari, giving their modern name to the whole cluster. The island of $Strong\check{y}le$ was so named by the Greeks on account of its round form $(\Sigma\tau\rho\alpha\gamma\check{v}\lambda\eta, scil.\ \nu\check{\eta}\sigma\alpha i$, "the round island"), and is now Stromboli, celebrated for its continual volcano. The ancients made this island the residence of £olus, monarch of the winds; and Pliny gives us the germ of the whole fable, when he states that the inhabitants could tell three days beforehand, from the smoke of the volcano, what winds were going to blow.

III. MELĬTA AND GAULUS.

I. Mclita, now Malta, lay sixty miles southeast of Sicilia. It is first mentioned by Scylax, but is considered by him as belonging to Africa, from its having Punic inhabitants, and being no farther from Africa than from Sicily. The earlier Greek historians do not mention it, since it was regarded as a Carthaginian island, and lay without their historical limits.

II. Diodorus Siculus is the first that gives us any account of it. "There are," he says, "over against that part of Sicily which lies to the south, three islands, at a distance in the sea, each of which has a town, and safe ports for ships overtaken by tempests. The first, called Melite, has several excellent harbors. The inhabitants are very rich, inasmuch as they exercise many trades, and, in particular, manufacture cloths remarkable for their softness and fineness. Their houses are large, and splendidly ornamented with projections and stucco (γείσσους καὶ κονιάμασι). The island is a colony of the Phænicians, who, trading to the western ocean, use it as a place of refuge, because it has excellent ports, and lies in the midst of the sea. Next to this island is another, named Gaulus, with convenient harbors, which is also a colony of the Phænicians." The island of Gaulus, here mentioned, is the modern Gozo. The third island of Diodorus was Cercīna, off the coast of Africa, now Kerkine.

III. Melita is said to have been subsequently occupied by the Greeks; but, however this may be, the Carthaginians obtained possession of it B.C. 402. In the first Punic war it was plundered by the Roman consul Atilius. In the second Punic war it was surrendered to the Romans, and was regarded henceforth as an appendage to the province of Sicily. Its commerce declined under its new masters, and the island became a not unfrequent haunt of pirates. It appears, however, that its temple of Juno was rich enough to be an object of plunder to the rapacious Verres, when he was prætor of Sicily. The linen cloth of Malta was considered an article of luxury at Rome.

IV. After the division of the Roman empire at the death of Constantine, this island was included in the share allotted to Constantius. It fell subsequently

into the hands of the Vandals and Goths, who were expelled by Belisarius, A.D. 533. The Arabs conquered it in 870, and though it was recovered and held by the Eastern empire for the space of thirty-four years, it was retaken by the Arabs, and the Greek inhabitants were exterminated. In 1120, Count Roger, the Norman conqueror of Sicily, took possession of Malta and expelled the Arabs.

IV. CORSĬCA.

I. The first notice of Corsica is in Herodotus, under the name of Cyrnus (K'oρνος). The people of Phocæa in Asia Minor, unable to resist the Persian Cyrus, determined to desert their native town. In the year 544 B.C. they embarked, with their wives and children, first for Chios, and afterward for Corsica, in which they had twenty years before founded the town of Alalia. Half the number, however, returned to Phocæa, but the remainder pursued their voyage, and joined the people of Alalia, with whom they continued five years, plundering the surrounding nations, until, having suffered dreadful loss in a sea-fight against the allied fleet of the Tyrrhenians and Carthaginians, they abandoned Corsica to seek another settlement.

, II. In the time of Gelon of Syracuse, B.C. 480, we find mention of Corsicans ($K\acute{v}\rho\nu\iota\iota\iota$) among the troops with which the Carthaginian Hamilcar came to the aid of Terillus, tyrant of Himera. The Carthaginians had probably possessed themselves of Corsica, at least of the coast, and on their downfall it came under the power of the Romans. A tribute of two hundred thousand pounds of wax imposed on them deserves notice, as indicating one of the chief products of the island at that time.

III. The Romans founded two colonies, both on the eastern coast: Mariāna, at the mouth of the $Tav\bar{o}la$, now the Golo, founded by Marius; and $Al\bar{c}ria$, on the site of the ancient $Al\bar{a}lia$, at the mouth of the $Rh\bar{o}t\bar{a}nus$, now the Tavignano, by the dictator Sylla. The Romans used the island as a place of banishment. Seneca was sent to it as an exile. On the downfall of the Roman empire, Corsica came into the hands of the Vandals, and subsequently of the Goths; but the successes of Belisarius forced them to abandon the island, which was then included in the exarchate of Ravenna, a dependency of the Eastern empire. Early in the eighth century, the Saracens, then masters of Spain, possessed themselves of Corsica; but the decline of their power, and the attacks of the kings of France and Arragon, and ultimately of the Pope, led them to abandon the island.

(A.) MOUNTAINS OF CORSICA.

The whole country is exceedingly mountainous and woody. The two chains, however, most deserving of special mention are, 1. Aureus Mons (τὸ Χρυσοῦν ὅρος), running from north to south, and dividing the island into two parts. 2. Mons Rhætius (τὸ Ῥοίτιον ὅρος), on the western side, near the River Cercidius.

(B.) RIVERS OF CORSICA.

1. Tavõla, in the north, now the Golo, having Mariāna at its mouth. 2. Rhŏtănus, now the Tavignano, having at its mouth Alalia or Aleria. 3. Sacer, now the Orbo. 4. Ticārius, now the Tigari, on the western side. 5. Locras, now the Talavo. 6. Cercidius, now the Liamone.

(C.) PROMONTORIES.

1. Promontorium Sacrum, the north land's end, now Capo Corso. 2. Actium Promontorium, now Capo d'Acciajualo, on the western side. 3. Viriballum Promontorium, now Capo di Gargalo, on the same side. 4. Rhium Promontorium, to the south of the preceding, now Capo di Feno. 5. Marinum Promontorium, now Capo di Casa Barbarica.

(D.) PRODUCTS OF CORSICA.

Rosin; honey of a bitter taste, in consequence of the great abundance of yew-trees (taxi) in the island; wax, subsequently wine, oil, &c. It must be observed, that the eastern coast, where the Romans had their settlements, was the only quarter that was well cultivated.

(E.) INHABITANTS OF CORSICA.

I. The inhabitants, called *Corsi* or *Cyrnii*, were, according to Seneca, an Iberian race; and this remark of his is of considerable value, since he himself was a native of Spain. They lived, after a patriarchal fashion, on milk and cheese, and hence were long lived. These aboriginals were mixed with Tyrrhenians and Ligyans.

II. The Phocæan Greeks founded the town of *Alalia*. Their subsequent movements have already been referred to.

(F.) CITIES OF CORSICA.

1. Clunium, in the north, on the eastern side of the island, and near the Promontorium Sacrum; now Santa Catharina. 2. Mantinorum Oppidum, to the south of the preceding, now Bastia. 3. Mariana, to the south, at the mouth of the Tavola, now the Golo. It was founded by Marius. 4. Alălia, to the south, at the mouth of the Rhotanus, now the Tavignano. It was founded, as already stated, by the Phocæans, when they left their native city in Ionia, in order to avoid the rule of Cyrus. It was subsequently colonized by Sylla, and became the capital of the island. From this period we find the name written Alēria. The modern appellation is also Aleria. 5. Talcinum, in the interior, to the northwest of the preceding. It is now Talcino. 6. Centurinum, in the north, on the western side of the island, and near the Promontorium Sacrum. It is now Centuri. 7. Palanta, some distance to the southwest of the preceding, and near the western coast. It is now Balagna. 8. Tarabenorum Vicus, some distance below the preceding, and removed from the western coast, now Vico. 9. Urcinium, to the southeast of the Rhium Promontorium, or Capo di Feno. fabled to have been founded by Eurysaces, the son of Ajax, and is now Ajaccio. 10. Portus Titianus, some distance to the south, now Porto Tiziano. 11. Palla, near the southern extremity of the island, and now Porto S. Giulia. Some, however, make it the same with Bonifacio. The strait in this quarter, between Corsica and Sardinia, was called Taphros, and is now the Strait of Bonifacio. Passing around to the eastern side of the island, we may name, 12. Portus Syrācusānus, now Porto di S. Manza, and, 13. Portus Favonius, to the north, now Porto Favone.

V. SARDINIA.

I. The oldest Greek form for the name of this island was Sardo (Σαρδώ), and the inhabitants were called Sardoï (Σαρδώοι) and Sardonii (Σαρδόνιοι). The

Romans called the island Sardinia, and the inhabitants Sardi, rarely Sardinienses. In outline, the island is not unlike the rough footsteps of a man, and hence it was sometimes called Ichnūsa (Ἰχνοῦσα) and Sandaliōtis (Σανδαλιῶτις), from Ἰχνος and σανδάλιον, both meaning "a footstep."

II. Whence Sardinia received its first inhabitants we are not informed by any ancient writer. They speak, indeed, of settlements made at various times in the island, but the new comers always found a rude race of inhabitants already in possession. The first who is said to have led a colony hither was Sardus, a son of Hercules. He introduced among the rude inhabitants, who were accustomed to dwell in caves, the first rudiments of civilization; taught them agriculture, and was their earliest lawgiver. In gratitude to him, they are said to have called the island after his name, and to have worshipped him as a god.

III. A colony of Iberians is said to have come next, under Norax, from Bætica. He settled in the southern part of the island, and founded the city of Nora, calling it after his own name. Descending to more historic times, we find Iölāus to have led the first Grecian colony to this island, and to have founded Olbia on the northern coast, afterward a considerable town in the Roman period, and of which vestiges are found near Terranova. Strabo says that the colonists of Iŏlāus inhabited the island jointly with the barbarians. From an inscription found at Stampace, it appears that Carălis, the modern Cagliari, assumed at one time the name of "Civitas Iŏla," and, even at the present day, a part of the territory of Cagliari is called Euradoria li Iola.

IV. The fertility of Sardinia soon invited over numerous Grecian settlers, and various petty republics were established, independent of each other. Traces of Grecian customs and attire are said still to remain. The Carthaginians would seem to have obtained a footing in Sardinia at a very early period, as the situation of the island, in a commercial point of view, was too important to be neglected. Its fertility, moreover, made it one of their granaries, and they used every means in their power to promote agricultural labors. We have no accounts of the wars of the Carthaginians in Sardinia, but it appears that they never reduced it entirely, as the natives took refuge in the mountains, ever ready to rise at any favorable opportunity. The lower country, however, was permanently in possession of the Carthaginians until the first Punic war.

V. Sardinia fell into the hands of the Romans, and was incorporated into a province about B.C. 228, in the interval between the first and second Punic wars. Its new masters, however, could only, as the Carthaginians had done before them, obtain possession of the lower country. The inhabitants of the mountainous country, in the interior, defended themselves successfully for nearly one hundred years. Indeed, it may be said that Sardinia was never completely subdued by the Romans, and the predatory movements of the mountaineers still occasioned trouble in the days of the emperors. In the fifth century the island fell into the hands of the Vandals.

VI. Livy describes the Sardinian mountaineers as clothed in skins, a species of attire not entirely laid aside by them even at the present day. In war they carried small bucklers covered with skin. From this peculiar kind of covering for their bodies they were called mastrucati (the term for a garment of skin being mastruca), and mastrucati latrunculi ("skin-clad banditti") were often very dangerous antagonists for the Romans.

(A.) CLIMATE OF SARDINIA.

I. The mountain atmosphere of Sardinia was healthy; but the plains and some of the lower valleys were notoriously unhealthy, and have continued so

to the present day. Cicero, Strabo, Martial, and, in later times, Dante, all speak in strong terms of the insalubrity of Sardinia. The noxious effects of the climate were still more sensibly felt by strangers than by natives. Hence, whenever the Romans wished to designate a particularly unhealthy region, they named Sardinia; and so greatly did they dread the effects of its climate, that they never ventured to keep a standing force in this island for any length of time.

II. The principal causes of this unhealthiness were the pools of standing water in the hollows of the island, and the want of northerly winds. These winds were kept off, as some of the ancients believed, by the mountains of Corsica, and even of Italy. The *Insāni Montes* of Sardinia also contributed to produce this. In modern times, the active causes of the unhealthiness of the island are the exhalations from the marshes and the beds of rivers, which are nearly dry in summer, and the putrescent vegetation.

(B.) FERTILITY, PRODUCTS, &c.

I. The fertility of Sardinia is attested by all the ancient writers. Rome obtained her supplies of grain not only from Sicily, but also from Sardinia; large quantities of salt, too, as in modern times, were manufactured on the western and southern coasts. The ancient writers make mention, also, of the mines in this island; and some of these were worked to a great extent, as is attested by vast excavations and the remains of founderies. Southwest of Iglesias is Monte d'Oro, which appears to have derived its name from the gold formerly extracted from it; the mountain has been reduced by excavation to a mere shell. There is no doubt that silver also was procured in considerable quantities, and Solinus makes mention of mines of this metal.

II. Two products of the island, however, deserve particular notice. One of these is its wool, which in modern days has fallen off in quality, and is now principally manufactured into coarse cloth for the peasantry. The beautiful tincture, also, of a delicate vermilion hue, mentioned by the ancients under the name of tinctūra Sardōnica, is no longer known. The other remarkable product was a species of wild parsely (apiastrum), a sort of ranunculus, called by Solinus "herba Sardōnia." It grew very abundantly around springs and wet places. Whoever ate of it died, apparently laughing; in other words, the nerves became contracted, and the lips of the sufferer assumed the appearance of an involuntary and painful laugh. Hence the expression Risus Sardōnicus.

III. Sardinia was famed also for its fisheries, especially of tunnies and sardines, the latter deriving their name (sardinia) from that of the island:

(C.) MOUNTAINS.

I. Sardinia may be called a mountainous island, a chain of mountains running through it from north to south, though nearer to the eastern than the western coast. From the northern part of this chain another rises, which proceeds from east to west, and which separates the island, as it were, into two parts. This cross range is called by Ptolemy τὰ Μαινόμενα 'Ορη, and by the Latin writers Insāni Montes, or the "Mad Mountains."

II. The mountains of Sardinia exercise a very important influence on the character of its coast, on the temperature, and on the productiveness of the island. The numerous side ranges, running down to the very coast, form spacious bays, and, on the southern and western shores, safe harbors. On the east side of the island, however, the cliffs are high and steep, and scarcely afford any where a safe anchoring place, while gusts of wind frequently blow with very sudden and great fury from the interior of the mountain ranges, and

do great damage to vessels along these shores. Hence probably the appellation of "Insāni Montes," and hence, too, the language of Claudian (Bell. Gildon., v. 512), "Insānos infāmat nāvīta montes." Along the whole range, therefore, of the eastern coast, although so conveniently situated for intercourse with Italy, the ancients had but one really good harbor, Olbia, and that far to the north; and in modern days, too, no place of any importance is found along this part of Sardinia.

(D.) RIVERS.

1. The Termus, on the western side, now the Termo; but, according to Reichard, the Serra. 2. The Thyrsus, on the same side, below the preceding, now the Oristano. 3. The Sacer, to the south of the preceding, and on the same side, now the Uras. 4. The Saprus, on the eastern side, now the Flamendoso.

(E.) PROMONTORIES.

1. Erebantium Promontorium, at the northern extremity, now Longo Sardo; according to others, Capo della Testa. 2. Columbarium Promontorium, on the upper part of the eastern coast, now Capo Figari. 3. Caralitānum Promontorium, on the coast of the Sinus Caralitanus, in the southern part of the island, now Capo S. Elia. 4. Cunicularium Promontorium, to the southwest of the preceding, now Capo di Pula. 5. Sulcense Promontorium, on the western coast, in the lower part, now Capo dell' Ulga. 6. Crassum Promontorium, to the north of the preceding, now Capo di Pecora. 7. Hermæum Promontorium, to the north, now Capo della Caccia. 8. Gordītānum Promontorium, to the north, now Capo di Monte Falcone.

(F.) CITIES OF SARDINIA.

CITIES on the eastern coast: 1. Olbia, in the north, the only really good harbor on this side of the island, and where the Roman magistrates landed. Traces remain near the modern Terra Nova. 2. Cochlearia, to the south, now Porto Pedrami. 3. Luquido, to the southwest, some distance inland, with a port called Portus Luquidonis. It is now Lugodor. 4. Feronia, to the southeast, now Monte Santo. 5. Saralāpis, to the southwest, near the River Sæprus; now a village named Burgus occupies its site. 6. Scarcăpos, to the southeast, at the mouth of the Sæprus, now Sarabus or Scarabo.

On the southern side: 1. Carălis, the capital of the island, founded by the Carthaginians, and now Cagliari. In fact, however, the modern Cagliari answers only to a part of its site, since the ancient city is said to have extended in a long line toward the Caralitanum Promontorium. Its harbor, which afforded a good shelter against the winds and waves, rendered it always a place of importance. The bay in front was called Sinus Caralitanus, now the Gulf of Cagliari. 2. Biōra or Biōtha, to the southwest, the ruins of which are seen near the village of Uras. 3. Nōra, east of Sulci, on the coast, now Torre Forcadizo.

On the western coast: 1. Sulci, a Carthaginian settlement of note, the ruins of which are in the vicinity of the village of Sulci, on the harbor of Palma di Solo. Others, however, make it to have been on the island Plumbaria, now Antioco, where extensive remains still exist, and where in 1819 an inscription was found in which Sulci is styled a Roman municipium. 2. Neapölis, to the north, now Neapoli. 3. Comus, to the north, near the River Termus, and the capital of the free Sards. It was a strongly fortified place, and lay among the mountains. The ruins on Monte Santo appear to indicate its site. 4. Turris Libyssonis, a considerable distance above, where the coast faces the northwest;

now Porto Torre. 5. Tibala, to the northeast, the landing place from Corsica, now Porto Longo Sardo.

In the interior, the only places worth mentioning are, 1. Lēsa, to the northwest, with its baths, called Aqua Lesitana. 2. Forum Trajani, to the northwest, now Fordongiano.

VII. ILLYRICUM.

I. The name of Illyrians appears to have been common to the numerous tribes which were anciently in possession of the countries situated to the west of Macedonia, and which extended along the coast of the Adriatic, from the confines of Istria and Italy to the borders of Epirus.

II. Still farther north, and more inland, we find them occupying the great valleys of the Savus and Dravus, which were only terminated by the junction of those streams with the Danube. This large tract of country under the Roman emperors constituted the provinces of Illyricum and Pannonia.

(A.) HISTORICAL SKETCH.

I. ANTIQUITY has thrown but little light on the origin of the Illyrians, nor are we acquainted with the language and customs of the barbarous hordes of which the great body of the nation was composed. Their warlike habits, however, and the peculiar practice of puncturing their bodies, which is mentioned by Strabo as being in use also among the Thracians, might lead us to connect them with that widely-extended people. It appears evident that they were a totally different race from the Celts, since Strabo carefully distinguishes them from the Gallic tribes which were incorporated with them.

II. The Illyrians appear to have spread themselves at a very early period along the Italian shores of the Adriatic, as we have already mentioned in our remarks on Italy. At a later day we find them frequently engaged in hostilities with the princes of Macedon, to whom their warlike spirit rendered them formidable neighbors. Their rising power was checked, however, by Philip and his son Alexander, although they still asserted their independence against the Macedonian kings.

III. The conquest of Illyria by the Romans led the way to the first interference of Rome in the affairs of Greece, and an account of the events which then took place may be found detailed in the pages of Polybius. When Illyria became a Roman province it was divided into three portions; but it received afterward a considerable accession of territory on the reduction of the Dalmatians, Iapydes, and other petty nations, by Augustus, these being included from that period within its boundaries. So widely, indeed, were the frontiers of Illyricum extended under the Roman emperors, that they were made to comprise the three great districts of Noricum, Pannonia, and Mæsia.

(B.) BOUNDARIES, &c.

ILLYRICUM may be considered as divided into Illyria Barbara or Romana, and Illyria Graca. The former comprised the country lying between the River Arsia, now Arsa; the Savus, now Save, and its tributary the Drīnus, now Drina; the Adriatic, and the Drilo, now Drino Biancho; together with the islands along the shore. It was divided into Iapydia, Liburnia, and Dalmátia. The country called Illyria Graca, added to Macedonia by Philip, the father of Alexander, extended from the Drilo to the Aöus, now the Vojussa.

I. ILLYRIA BARBARA, OR ROMANA.

(A.) MOUNTAINS.

1. Albius Mons, forming the extremity of the great Alpine chain, and answering to the great and small Capella, near the Lugeus Laous, now the Czirknitz See, where the territory of the Iapydes commenced. 2. Bebii Montes, separating Liburnia and Dalmatia from Pannonia. 3. Adrius Mons, called also Ardius and Ardion, dividing Dalmatia lengthwise; now Tartari. 4. Scardus or Scordus, forming the natural boundary of Illyria on the side of Macedonia. It was connected on the north with the great chain extending from the head of the Adriatic to the Euxine, and so well known in ancient times under the names of Orbelus, Rhodopc, and Hamus, while to the south its prolongations assumed the appellation of Pindus. It is now Tchar Dagh.

(B.) RIVERS.

1. Arsia, now Arsa, the boundary of Italy on the east, after Histria had been added to that country by Augustus. 2. Tedānius, the boundary of Iapydia, and now the Zermagna. 3. Titius, the boundary between Liburnia and Dalmatia, now the Kerka. 4. Nāro, now the Narenta, rising in what are now the mountains of Bosnia, and falling into the sea opposite the island of Lesina. 5. Drīlo, now the Drino. This river is formed principally by the junction of two streams, the one distinguished in modern geography by the name of Drino Biancho, or "the White Drino," rising in the chain of Djamous Dagh, anciently Mons Bertiscus; the other called the Drino Nero, or "Black Drino," flowing from the south, out of the great Lake of Ochrida, the ancient Lychnītis Palus, and uniting with the former after a course of nearly sixty miles. 6. Clausūla, uniting with the Barbāna, below the town of Scodra, the capital of Gentius, after which the united stream takes the common name of Oriuns. The Clausula is now the Drivasti.

(C.) TRIBES ON THE COAST.

I. The first tribe on the coast, to the southeast of Histria, were the Iapydes or Iapodes. They occupied an extent of coast of more than a thousand stadia, from the River Arsia to the neighborhood of what is now Zara, a district which forms part of the present Morlachia. In the interior, their territory was spread along Mount Albius. They were a people of warlike spirit, and were not subdued until the time of Augustus.

II. The Liburni, who followed next on the coast, are much more spoken of in history. They appear to have been a maritime people from the earliest times, as they communicated their name to the vessels called Liburnæ by the Romans. The Greeks, who colonized Corcyra, are said on their arrival in that island to have found it in their possession. Strabo makes them to have extended along the coast for upward of fifteen hundred stadia. Their country was called Liburnia.

III. Dalmāta.—These follow after the Liburni, and give name to Dalmatia. No mention is made of them by the Greek writers, but they acquired a decided ascendency over the Ardiæi, Pleræi, Labeates, and other neighboring tribes. The Dalmatæ were not easily conquered by the Romans; they often revolted, and not unfrequently obtained advantages over their enemies. Augustus at length accomplished their subjugation. According to Appian, he concluded the war in person before he became emperor.

IV. Labeates, whose territory constituted the principal part of the dominions of Gentius.

(D.) CITIES OF THESE TRIBES.

Among the Iapydes we find, 1. Metulum, their principal town, taken by Augustus after an obstinate defence. Its site remains at present unknown, although some are in favor of the modern Metling. 2. Arupenum, south of the place now called Modrush. 3. Vendum, now Vendo.

Among the Liburni we find, 1. Iadëra, a city of some note, and a Roman colony, the ruins of which are still to be seen near the modern town of Zara, on the spot called Zara Vecchia. 2. Scardōna, the capital of the Liburni, on the Lacus Scardonius, and now Scardin. The national council of the Liburni was held here.

Among the Dalmata we find, 1. Tragurium, a sea-port, now Trau, and, in Sclavonian, Troghie. 2. Salon or Salona, to the northeast, now Salona, and in ancient times the principal harbor of Dalmatia. It was always considered an important post by the Romans after their conquest of the country. At Aspalathos, the modern Spalatro, about three miles from Salona, are to be seen the ruins of Diocletian's palace. According to Zosimus, Diocletian was born here. 3. Epetium, belonging to the Issai, to the southeast, now Stobrea, at the mouth of the Xernovnissa. 4. Narona, to the southeast, on a branch of the River Naro. It was a Roman colony of some note, and its ruins should be sought for in the vicinity of Castel Norin. 5. Delminium or Dalminium, inland to the northeast, and from which the Dalmatæ probably derived their name. 6. Epidaurus, to the southeast, the name of which leads to the supposition that it was a Grecian colony. It is now Ragusa Vecchia, a little south of Ragusa, which last was built by those who fled from the old town at the irruption of the Sclavonians. 7. Rhizon, at the northern extremity of the Sinus Rhizonicus, or Bocca di Cattaro. It is now Risano. Rhizon is mentioned by Polybius as a strong place, to which Teuta, queen of the Illyrians, withdrew on being attacked by the Romans. 8. Butua or Buthoe, the foundation of which was ascribed to Cadmus, who, with his wife Harmonia, abandoned Thebes late in life, and ended his days on the shores of Illyria. It was situate among the Enchelees.

Among the Labeātes we find, 1. Scodra, the capital of Gentius, situate between the rivers Clausūla and Barbāna. Its present site is evidently not precisely the same as that of the modern Scutari, but it must have been situate on the site of the present fortress, near the junction of the two rivers. It was a place of great strength. 2. Mēdēon, to which Gentius removed his wife and family. It is now Medani. 3. Lissus, near the mouth of the Drilo, with a fortress called Acrolissus. Diodorus Siculus makes it to have been founded by some Syracusans, in the time of Dionysius the elder. Cæsar makes frequent mention of this place during the progress of the civil war carried on by him in Illyricum. The site of Acrolissus answers to that of the modern Alessio.

(E.) TRIBES IN THE INTERIOR.

We now pass to the interior of Illyricum, which Strabo describes as a cold and mountainous country, where the vine was rarely seen to grow. This extensive tract was occupied by several tribes of Illyrian origin, though they are more commonly known to the Roman writers under the generic term of Pannönii. Among these tribes we may notice, 1. The Scordisci, a numerous and powerful people, reaching as far as the Danube, and who, having successively subdued the several nations around them, extended their dominion from the borders of Thrace to the Adriatic. They were reduced by the Romans only after numerous struggles and much bloodshed. 2. The Dardāni, more to the south, occupying the upper valleys of the Drilo, and spreading to the borders

of Pæonia and Macedonia. They were often at war with the latter power, more particularly under the reigns of its last two monarchs. Their territory corresponds to part of the modern Pachalik of Scutari. Strabo describes them as a savage race, living mostly in caves formed out of mud and dirt, and yet possessing great taste for music, having from the earliest period been acquainted with both wind and stringed instruments. 3. The Autariata. According to Strabo, these were once the bravest and most numerous of the Illyrian clans. They conquered the Triballi, a people of Thrace, who occupied a very extensive territory south of the Danube, but were at length subdued themselves by the Scordisci.

II. ILLYRIS GRÆCA.

I. This country forms a more interesting portion of Illyricum than that which has just been described, and is more immediately connected with Greece by means of the colonies which that country at an early period had established on these shores. It is now wholly comprised in the Turkish province of Albania, and is a mountainous tract. Along the coast it occupied an extent of nearly ninety miles from the mouth of the *Drilo* to the Acroceraunian Mountains and the confines of Chaonia.

II. Among the tribes inhabiting this country, independently of the Greek colonists, we may name the *Taulantii*, *Parthini*, *Dassaretii*, *Pirusta*, &c.

III. Illÿris Graca was wrested from Queen Teuta by the Romans, in the first Illyrian war, and subsequently, as a part of the Eastern Empire, bore the name of $Ep\bar{\imath}rus$ Nova. At a later period it was overrun by the Visigoths. The Bulgarians afterward erected here an empire, with Akrida, the ancient $Lychn\bar{\imath}dus$, as its capital. During these invasions of their country, the Illyrians took to the mountains, where they united under the name of $Alb\bar{u}ni$, and became a powerful nation, formidable to the Eastern empire, and possessed themselves of $Dard\bar{u}ni$, the whole of $Ep\bar{\imath}rus$, and all the mountains up to Macedonia.

CITIES OF ILLYRIS GRÆCA.

1. Epidamnus, in the territory of the Taulantii, an important and flourishing city, founded by the Corcyreans. It changed its name subsequently to Dyrrhachium, but for what reason is not known. According to some, the Romans made the change because Epidamnus conveyed to their ears an ill-omened sound. The more correct explanation, however, appears to be, that the founders of Epidamnus gave the name of Dyrrhachium to the high and craggy peninsula on which they built their town; and in time this may have usurped the place of the former name. It is probable, also, from the language of Pausanias, that the town called Dyrrhachium did not exactly occupy the site of the ancient Epidamnus. Epidamnus successfully withstood all the attacks of the neighboring barbarians, until dissension and faction weakened its power. It then sought aid from the Coreyreans as well against domestic as foreign enemies. Corcyra having refused, Corinth was next applied to, which gladly sought this opportunity of increasing its influence at the expence of Corcyra. A quarrel thereupon arose between the Corcyreans and Corinthians, which was intimately connected with the origin of the Peloponnesian war. We know but little of the fortunes of Epidamnus from this period to its conquest by the Romans. Dyrrhachium, as it was called under the Roman sway, became the scene of the contest between Cæsar and Pompey, until the latter, who had been sought to be blockaded in his intrenched camp close to the town, at length succeeded in forcing his opponent to retire, and was thus enabled to transfer the seat of war to Thessaly. Dyrrhachium was also of importance to the Romans, besides its strong situation, from its vicinity to Brundisium. Cicero landed there on his banishment from Italy. It sided with Antony in the civil war, and hence Augustus, after his victory, rewarded his soldiers with estates in its territories. The Byzantine historians speak of it as being still a considerable place in their time; but it is now scarcely more than a village, which is rendered unhealthy by its proximity to some marshes. Its modern name is Durazzo.

Passing the River Genūsus, now the Scombi or Tobi, and the Apsus, about twelve or fifteen miles to the south of this, now the Ergent or Beratino, and memorable from the military operations of Cæsar and Pompey on its banks, we come to, 2. Apollōnia, a celebrated colony of Corinth and Corcyra, situate near the mouth of the Aōus, one of the largest rivers of Greece, and now the Vojussa. It was renowned for the wisdom of its laws, which appear to have been framed on the Spartan rather than the Corinthian model. Apollonia was often exposed to attacks from the Illyrians, and also from the Macedonians; and it was probably the dread of such powerful neighbors which induced it to place itself under the protection of the Romans, on the first appearance of that people on its coast. From its proximity to Brundisium and Hydruntum, ports in Lower Italy, Apollonia was always deemed an important station by the Romans. Augustus spent many years of his early life in this city, in the study of literature and philosophy. The ruins still bear the name of Pollina. In the territory of Apollonia was a place called Nymphæum, famed for a mine of asphaltum.

3. Oricus or Oricum, a celebrated town and harbor, at the head of the bay, now called the Gulf of Valona, from the city of Valona, the ancient Aulon. Oricum was much frequented by the Romans in their communication with Greece. Its site is marked by the modern Ericho. 4. Amantia, at some distance from the coast, above Oricum, and said to have been founded by the Abantes of Eubœa, on their return from Troy. Its name, according to this account, was at first Abantia. It became a town of some note under the Roman sway. The ruins are near the modern village of Nivitza. 5. Byllis, in the vicinity of Apollonia and Amantia, and a city of some note. It became a Roman colony under the name of Colonia Byllidensis. Its site is supposed to have been near the modern Gradista, on the right bank of the Vojussa, the ancient Aous.

In the interior of Grecian Illyria, several obscure and petty nations occur, of whose limits we can form no precise idea, though their relative position may be ascertained with sufficient accuracy for the purposes of history. Of these we may mention the following:

I. The Parthini, who may be placed to the north, in the vicinity of Epidamnus, and next to the Taulantii. They are often mentioned in the course of the Illyrian war, but as friends rather than as foes of the Romans, having submitted at an early period to their arms. Their principal town was Parthus, taken by Cæsar in the course of his campaign against Pompey. It was probably not far removed from the modern Presa and Croja. In the vicinity of the Parthini, if not included within their territory, was Dimallum, a fortress of some consequence, occupying, probably, a position between Lissus and Epidamnus, on the spot now called Malosse, near the small town of Ichin.

II. The Perisādii, in the vicinity of the Parthini. III. The Sesarēthii, or inhabitants of Sesarēthus, a town, some traces of the name of which are still apparent in that of a small village called Sersdit. Strabo mentions a place named Damastium as being also in their territory, and possessing valuable silver mines. IV. The Albāni, whose chief town was Albanopölis. This obscure people would hardly deserve notice were it not for the connection between them and the mod-

ern Albanians, who are not, however, confined within the narrow limits of their ancestors, as they now extend over the whole of ancient Epirus also.

V. The Dassarētii, contiguous to the Albani and Parthini, and occupying the shores of the Palus Lychnītis, now the Lake of Ochrida, together with the mountains that surround it. Frequent mention is made of them by Polybius and Livy in their narratives of the Macedonian wars, since their country, from its situation on the Macedonian borders of Illyria, often became the scene of hostilities between the contending armies. The principal town was Lychnīdus or Lychnīdium, on the Palus Lychnītis, a place of great importance from its situation on the frontier, especially after the great Egnatian Way passed through it. Under the Greek emperors it appears to have been still a large and populous town. The ruins of this place are still apparent near the monastery of St. Naum or Nahaun, about fourteen miles to the south of the modern Ochrida.

The Palus Lychnītis, formed principally by the waters of the Drino Nero, is about twenty miles in length and eight in breadth. Strabo says it abounded in fish, which were salted for the use of the inhabitants in the vicinity. We collect from Livy that the country of the Dassaretii was in general fertile in corn, and well calculated to support an army. It was also very populous.

On the Macedonian border, and commanding the pass leading into that country, was Pēlion, a place of considerable importance from its situation, and of which Arrian speaks at some length in his relation of an attack made upon it by Alexander. Arrian does not state that it belonged to the Dassaretii, but we learn this from Livy. The site of this place must have been near the modern town of Bichlistas.

VI. The *Penesta* appear to have possessed a considerable tract of mountainous country, to the north of the *Dassarctii*, and extending to the east as far as the frontier of Macedonia, while on the west and northwest it almost reached to the Labeates and the dominions of Gentius. Their principal city was *Uscāna*, a place of some extent and importance, since it contained ten thousand inhabitants. Its site must have been near *Isturga* and *Dibre*, in the valley of the *Drino*.

ISLANDS OF ILLYRICUM.

1. Absyrtides Insula, already mentioned in the description of Italy (page 288). They were four in number, and lay off the Promontorium Polaticum. 2. Curicta or Curiacte, to the northeast of the preceding, and now Veglia, in which Ptolemy places the towns of Fulsinium and Curictum. 3. Scardona, to the southeast of the Absyrtides, and now Arbe, a name which it derives from Arba, one of its ancient towns, now Arbe. Another town was called Collentum. 4. Liburnides Insula, the Liburnian Islands, forty in number, in what is now the Zara Channel. The largest of these is Lissa, now Isola Grossa. 5. Cratea Insula, together with Proteras and Olynta, now Solta, in the Solta Channel. 6. Colentum, now Mortero.

The islands along the coast of Dalmatia were more important by their size or their commerce: they are, 1. Bavo or Boas, still called Bua, joined to the town of Tragurium by an embankment. It was fruitful in oil, wine, &c., and was likewise a place of banishment. 2. Brattia, now Brazzo, valued for its goats' cheese and wine, the best in Dalmatia. 3. Issa, with its Greek settlements, famous for the Issaici lembi, a sort of light craft. It is now Lissa. This island became a constant station for the Roman galleys in the wars with the kings of Macedon. Athenœus states that its wine was very much esteemed. 4. Pharos, colonized from the island of Paros in the Ægean. It is now Lessina.

5. Corcyra Nigra, in Greek Μέλαινα, or "Black Coreyra," to distinguish it from the more celebrated island of the same name. It is now Curzola. Apollonius accounts for the epithet applied to it from the dark masses of wood with which it was crowned. 7. Melīta, now Meleda, must not be confounded with the more famous island so called, which answers to Malta. It is to the Illyrian Melita, and not to the other island just mentioned, that we must refer the shipwreck of St. Paul. The similarity in the names of these islands has also given rise to another dispute, though of a less interesting nature, namely, which furnished the Catuli Melita; so much esteemed by the Roman ladies. Pliny, on the authority of Callimachus, and Stephanus Byzantinus pronounce in favor of the Illyrian Melita, Strabo in favor of the other. 8. Tauris, now Torkola, where Vatinius, Cæsar's admiral, routed Cn. Octavius. 9. Sāso, at the entrance of what is now the Gulf of Valona, was, according to Scylax, near the Acroceraunian Mountains, and within one third of a day's sail from Oricum. It is now Sasseno.

VIII. EPĪRUS.

1. NAME.

I. Epirus (ἤπειρος), or "mainland," was a name given at a very early period to that northwestern portion of Greece which is situate between the chain of Pindus and the Ionian Gulf, and between the Ceraunian Mountains and the River Achelōus.

II. This name was given to the country in question to distinguish it probably from the large, populous, and wealthy island of $Corc\bar{y}ra$, which lay opposite to the coast. As it appears, however, that in very ancient times Acarnania was also included in the term, the name, in that case, might have been used in opposition to all the islands lying along the coast.

2. BOUNDARIES.

Epirus, in the later sense of the name, was bounded on the east by Thessaly, from which it was separated by the range of Mount Pindus; on the west by the Ionian Sea; on the north by Illyricum and Macedonia; and on the south by Acarnania.

3. HISTORICAL SKETCH.

I. The inhabitants of Epirus were scarcely considered Hellenic. The population, in early times, had been Pelasgic. The oracle at Dodona was always called Pelasgic, and many names of places in Epirus were also borne by the Pelasgic cities of the opposite coast of Italy. But irruptions of Illyrians had barbarized the whole nation; and though Herodotus speaks of Thesprotia as a part of Hellas, he refers rather to its old condition, when it was a celebrated seat of the Pelasgians, than to its state at the time when he wrote his history. In their mode of cutting the hair, in their costume, and in their language, the Epirotes resembled the Macedonians, who were an Illyrian tribe.

II. Theopompus, as quoted by Strabo, divided the inhabitants of Epirus into fourteen different tribes, of which the most renowned were the Chaonians and

Molossians, who successively maintained a preponderance in this district. The Molossians claimed descent from Molossus, the son of Neoptolemus and Andromache. Neoptolemus is said to have migrated from Thessaly into Epirus after the Trojan war, and to have settled there in obedience to the injunctions of an oracle. We hear nothing of his descendants till the time of Themistocles, who was hospitably received by Admetus, king of the Molossians, while flying as a persecuted exile from the reach of his enemies.

III. The other kings of the Molossians are mentioned between this period and the time of Philip of Macedon, when this kingdom rose into importance by the matrimonial connection of Alexander of Epirus with the King of Macedon. Philip married Alexander's sister, Olympias, and gave him his daughter Cleopatra in marriage. Alexander was the first of the Molossian princes who bore the title of King of Epirus. He invaded Italy, to assist the Tarentines against the Bruttii and Lucani, but was slain near Pandosia.

IV. After the death of Alexander, Æacides and Alcetas, the sons of his predecessor Arybas, successively mounted the throne. Pyrrhus is the best known, however, of the sovereigns of Epirus. The family of Pyrrhus became extinct three generations after his death, and the government was turned into a republic, which subsisted till the year 167 B.C., when the Epirotes were suspected of favoring Perseus of Macedon, and utter destruction was inflicted upon them by the Roman general Paulus Æmilius. He is said to have destroyed seventy towns, and reduced to slavery one hundred and fifty thousand of the inhabitants, after which the greater part of the country remained in a state of absolute desolation, and where there were any inhabitants they had nothing but villages and ruins to dwell in.

V. Of the other Epirotic nations, the Thesprotians were most celebrated. They are mentioned by Homer, who does not name the Chaonians and Molossians, and are considered by Herodotus to have been the progenitors of the Thessalians. In their territory were the oracle of *Dodona*, the old city of Ephyra, and the rivers Acheron and Cocytus, celebrated in the old mythology. It is not possible to draw accurately boundary lines of the district occupied by these three tribes of the Epirots: it is known that the Chaonians occupied the northern district, and the Molossians the southern, while the Thesprotian territory lay in the middle. Epirus is now included in the Pachalik of *Albania*.

3. MOUNTAINS.

- 1. Acröcĕraunii Montes, a chain stretching along the coast of Northern Epirus, and forming part of the boundary between it and Illyricum. The name was derived from the circumstance of the summits of these mountains (ἄκρα) being often struck by lightning (κεραννός), especially that portion which extended beyond Oricum, and formed a bold promontory called the Acroceraunium Promontorium, now Cape Linguetta. This part of the coast was famed as the seat of storms and tempests, which the mariners of antiquity believed were attracted by these mountains. Augustus narrowly escaped shipwreck here when returning from Actium. The Greek name of the range was ᾿Ακροκεραύνια (scil. ὁρη). The modern name is Monti Della Chimera.
- 2. Pindus (6 Ilívõos), an elevated chain separating Epirus from Thessaly, and the waters falling into the Ionian Sea and Ambracian Gulf from those streams which discharge themselves into the Ægean. Toward the north it joined the great Illyrian and Macedonian ranges of Bora and Scardus, while to the south it was connected with the ramifications of Œta, and the Ætolian and Acarnanian Mountains. The most frequent passage from Northern Epirus into Thes-

saly appears to have led over that part of the chain of Pindus to which the name of *Mons Cercetius* was attached. The range of Pindus was sacred to the Muses. The modern name is *Agrapha*.

3. Tomārus or Tamārus Mons, called also Tmārus (Τόμαρος, Τάμαρος, Τμάρος), on the declivity or else at the foot of which stood the oracle of Dodona. It appears to answer to the modern Mount Chamouri. This lofty mountain was remarkable for the number of springs which burst from its sides. Holland, less correctly, makes it coincide with the modern Tzumerka.

4. RIVERS.

1. Achĕron (δ ' $A\chi \'e \rho \omega \nu$), rising in the mountains to the west of the chain of Pindus, and falling into the Ionian Sea near Glykys Limen ($\Gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \dot{\nu}_S \Lambda \iota \mu \dot{\eta} \nu$). In the early part of its course it forms the Palus Acherusia, and after emerging from this sheet of water, disappears under ground, from which it again rises and pursues its course toward the sea. D'Anville, misled by Thucydides, places the Palus Acherusia directly on the coast. Pausanias, more correctly, assigns it a position in the interior of Thesprotis. The modern Parga lies a short distance above the mouth of the Acheron, which is now known by the name of the Souli. The gloomy scenery on the banks of this river, which is still noticed by modern travellers, gave rise to the fable of its communicating with the realms of Pluto, who, under the name of Aïdoneus, was said to have once reigned on its shores.

2. Celydnus, falling into what is now the Gulf of Valona, a little above Oricum. Ptolemy says that it formed in his time the southern limit of Macedonia.

3. Thyamis, now the Calama, a large stream, which, according to Thucydides, anciently divided Thesprotia from a particular district called Cestrine, contiguous to Chaonia, and therefore lying along its right bank. The historian Phylarchus, as Athenæus reports, affirmed that the Egyptian bean was never known to grow out of Egypt, except in a marsh close to this river, and then only for a short period. It appears from Cicero that Atticus had an estate on the banks of the Thyamis.

4. Arachthus or Arēthon ('Aραχθος or 'Αρέθων), called by Lycophron the Aræthus ('Aραιθος), rising in that part of the chain of Pindus which belonged to the ancient Tymphai, and flowing by Ambracia into the Sinus Ambracius. It is now the Arta, which is the modern name also of the town that marks the site of ancient Ambracia.

5. PRODUCTIVENESS, &c.

I. Epirus, though in many respects wild and mountainous, was esteemed a rich and fertile country. Its pastures produced the finest oxen, and horses unrivalled for their speed. It was also famous for a large breed of dogs, thence called *Molossi*, and modern travellers have noticed the size and ferocity of these dogs at the present day.

II. The climate of Albania, in modern times, is colder than that of Greece; the spring does not set in before the middle of March; the vintage begins in September, and the heavy rains during December are succeeded in January by some days of frosty weather. The inhabitants cultivate cotton and silk; but the olive, for want of proper care, does not yield an abundant harvest. The horses of the country are still excellent; but the oxen have degenerated, being now small, stunted, and ill shaped.

6. DIVISIONS OF EPIRUS.

I. The ancients, as already remarked, divided Epirus into three districts or regions, namely, Chāōnia, Thesprōtia, and Mōlossis.

II. Chaonia comprehended that northwestern part of Epirus which bordered on the territory of Oricum, Amantia, and still more to the east on the country of the Atintānes, while it extended along the coast of the Ionian Sea from the Acroceraunian promontory to the harbor of Buthrōtum, opposite the island of Corcura.

III. Thesprotia was mainly situated between the rivers Thyamis and Acheron, now the Calama and Souli, while inland it extended beyond the source of the former to the banks of the Aöus.

IV. Molossis occupied the northeastern portion of Epirus; that is, from the head of the Aōus, and the mountainous district which connected Macedonia, Thessaly, and Epirus, to the Ambracian Gulf, a small portion of the shores of which was considered to belong to it. Molossis, therefore, must have comprehended the territory of Joanina, the present capital of Albania, together with its lake and mountains, including the country of the Tymphæi, which bordered on that part of Thessaly lying near the sources of the Penēus.

7. CITIES OF EPIRUS.

(A.) CHÃŎNIA.

1. On the Chaonian coast, south of the Acroceraunian promontory, is the little harbor of Palæste, where Cæsar landed his forces from Brundisium, in order to carry on the war against Pompey in Illyricum. Some trace of the ancient name is perceptible in that of the modern Palæssa, about twenty-five miles south of the Acroceraunian Cape. 2. Chimæra, to the south, now Chimara, and which communicates its name to the Acroceraunian Mountains, at the foot of which it stands. Hence, also, that of Chimariots given to the inhabitants. 3. Panormus, a harbor lower down on the coast, now Panormo. 4. Onchesmus, opposite the northeastern extremity of Corcyra. Cicero seems to refer to this port when he speaks of the wind Onchesmites as having favored his navigation from Epirus to Brundisium. Onchesmus appears to agree now with the town of Agioi Saranta, or the forty saints. 5. Cassiõpē Portus, to the south, and so called from its vicinity to a port and town of the same name in Corcyra.

There are but few towns to be pointed out in the interior of Chaonia, from the country being so mountainous, and the population confined chiefly to villages. Of these the most worthy of notice are, 1. Antigonea, so called from its situation near a celebrated pass called Fauces Antigonea, in Greek τὰ παρὰ τὴν 'Αντιγόνειαν στενά. It led from Illyria into Chaonia. The modern Argyro Castro represents the ancient city. 2. Phanote, a fortress near Antigonea, but separated from it by a chain of mountains. It corresponds to the modern Gardiki, a fortress of great strength, which once belonged to the Suliots, but which was afterward taken and destroyed by Ali Pacha. 3. Phanice, to the south of the preceding, and nearer to the sea. Polybius describes it as surpassing all the other cities of Epirus in opulence and importance, before it was, through the treachery of some Gauls in the pay of the town, surprised and plundered by a party of Illyrians. It still, however, continued to hold a distinguished rank among the cities of Epirus, and it was here that peace was negotiated between Philip of Macedon and the Romans in the second Punic war. It appears to have escaped the destruction to which so many towns in Epirus were doomed by the decree of the senate. The ruins of this place are to be seen near Delvino. 4. Hadriānopŏlis, situate, according to the Antonine Itinerary, fifty-five miles to the southeast of Amantia, and lying also to the northeast of Phænice. It was apparently built in the reign of the Emperor Hadrian. According to Procopius, it subsequently bore the name of Justinianopolis. A spot now called Drinopolis appears to mark the ancient site.

(B.) THESPROTIA.

Resuming our description of the coast from the harbor of Cassiope, the first point in maritime Thesprotia is the promontory Posidium, now Coperta. A little beyond is a narrow channel leading into a bay of some extent, thus forming with the sea a peninsula, on which was situated the ancient town of, 1. Buthrōtum. The outer bay and channel was named Pēlōdes portus, or the muddy haven. Buthrotum is now Butrinto. It was fabled to have been founded by Helĕnus, son of Priam, after the death of Pyrrhus. Buthrotum was occupied by Cæsar in the civil wars, and was afterward colonized by the Romans. The river alluded to by Virgil under the name of Xanthus falls into the Pelodes portus, a little to the south of Butrinto. It is now called Saronia.

To Cestrine in this quarter we have already alluded. From Hesychius and the scholiast on Aristophanes we learn that this part of Epirus was celebrated for its breed of oxen, hence called Cestrinici. The name Larini, by which these animals were also known, is said to have been derived from Larina, a village of Epirus. Beyond the mouth of the Thyamis we come to, 2. the harbor called Sybota, and also the little island of the same name, close to the main land, and nearly opposite the southernmost promontory of Corcyra. These islands are mentioned by Thucydides in his narrative of the collision between the Corcyreans and Corinthians, just before the commencement of the Peloponnesian war. Following still the coast, we come to, 3. Töröne, a haven near the modern Parga. According to Plutarch, the fleet of Augustus was moored here for a short time previous to the battle of Actium. 4. Ephyre, in this same vicinity, and at some distance from the sea, a city spoken of by Thucydides and other ancient writers. Among these we must rank Homer, who, in several passages of the lliad and Odyssey, alludes to one or more cities of that name. It appears to have been the capital of the ancient kings of Thesprotia. This place afterward took the name of Cichyrus. The ruins of Ephyre are now to be seen at no great distance from the Acherusian Lake, near a deserted convent dedicated to St. John.

Here terminates the description of maritime Thesprotia; the remaining part of the coast, as far as Ambracia, belonged to the Cassopai, who are generally considered to be a portion of the Molossi. As no towns of note seem to have existed in the interior of Thesprotia, which was mountainous and rugged, there is nothing else worthy of remark, with the exception of Dodona, the most ancient oracle of Greece, and inferior in celebrity and importance to the Pythian shrine alone. Many passages in the ancient writers ascribe this famed temple to the Molossi, but it can not be doubted that it originally belonged to Thesprotia. This is clearly stated, indeed, by Strabo, who observes that the tragic poets, together with Pindar, bestow the epithet of Thesprotian on the temple, and the god worshipped there. Subsequently, however, Dodona passed under the dominion of the Molossians. It is somewhat remarkable, that, notwithstanding the frequent mention of this renowned oracle by the poets, geographers, and historians of Greece, its site should, at the present day, have remained undiscovered. This is partly to be accounted for from the political change just mentioned, and still more from the imperfect knowledge which we have till

lately possessed of the present state of Epirus, and its comparative geography. It is universally allowed that this celebrated temple owed its origin to the Pelasgi at a period much anterior to the Trojan war, since many writers represent it as existing in the time of Deucalion, and even of Inachus. Herodotus distinctly states that it was the most ancient oracle of Greece, and represents the Pelasgi as consulting it on various occasions. Hence the title of Pelasgic assigned to Jupiter, to whom the temple was dedicated. Setting aside the fables which Herodotus has transmitted to us respecting Dodona and its doves, and to which he evidently attached no belief, it appears from this author that in his time the service of the temple was performed by females. Strabo, however, asserts, that these duties were originally allotted to men, from the circumstance of Homer's mention of the Selli as attendant upon the god. The responses of the oracle were originally delivered from a sacred oak or beech. Its reputation was at first confined to the inhabitants of Epirus, Acarnania, Ætolia, and the western parts of Greece, but its fame was afterward extended over the whole of that country, and even to Asia, since we know that on one occasion the oracle was consulted by Crœsus. The Bœotians were the only people who received the prophetic answers from the mouth of men; to all other nations they were always communicated by the priestesses of the temple. Dodona was the first station in Greece to which the offerings of the Hyperboreans were dispatched, according to Herodotus. They arrived there from the Hadriatic, and were thence passed on to the Sinus Maliacus. Among the several offerings presented to the temple by various nations, one dedicated by the Corcyreans is particularly noted. It was a brazen figure, placed over a cauldron of the same metal; this statue held in its hand a whip, the lash of which consisted of three chains, each having an astragalus fastened to the end of it; these, when agitated by the wind, struck the cauldron, and produced a sound so continued that four hundred vibrations could be counted before it ceased. Hence arose the various proverbs of the Dodonean cauldron and the Corcyrean lash. At length, during the Social War, Dodona was, according to Polybius, almost entirely destroyed in an irruption of the Ætolians, under their prætor Dorimachus, then at war with Epirus. "They set fire," says the historian, "to the porches, destroyed many of the offerings, and pulled down the sacred edifice." It is probable that the temple of Dodona never recovered from this disaster, as, in Strabo's time, there was scarcely any trace left of the oracle; but the town must still have existed, as it is mentioned by Hierocles among the cities of Epirus in the seventh century; and we hear of a bishop of Dodona in the Council of Ephesus. Dodona stood either on the declivity or at the foot of Mount Tomarus, and hence the name of Tomuri, supposed to be a contraction for Tomaruri (Toμαρούροι), or guardians of Tomarus, which was given to the priests of the temple. According to the most probable opinion, Tomarus answers to the modern Chamouri, and if so, the remains of Dodona ought, according to Cramer, to be sought on the shores of a small lake on the northeastern side of the mountain. Leake, however, places the ancient site at the southeastern extremity of the Lake of Joanina, near the modern Kastritza. For a full examination of the question, the student is referred to that author's Travels in Northern Greece (vol. iv., p. 168, seqq.), with which he may compare the remarks of Cramer (Anc. Greece, vol. i., p. 121, seqq.) and Wordsworth (Hist. of Greece, p. 247, seqq.).

There is another question connected with this subject. It was the general belief of the ancient readers of Homer that there were two Dodonas, one in Thessaly, the other in Epirus; the former situated in Perrhæbia, near Mount Olympus. Stephanus Byzantinus enters fully into the discussion, and is in favor

of the existence of two places of this name; and the same view is taken by Ritter in modern times (*Vorhalle*, &c., *Berlin*, 1820). Leake, however, has proved the position to be an untenable one.

(C.) Molossis.

1. Pandosia, not far removed from the Acheron and the Acherusian Lake, and answering now, according to Leake, to Kastri. It was a colony of Elis, and gave name to another Pandosia, in Italy, in the country of the Bruttii. Alexander, king of Epirus, was warned by the oracle of Dodona to avoid Pandosia and the Acherusian water, and erroneously applied it to this his own Pandosia, instead of that of Italy, where he received his fatal wound. 2. Buchatium, Buchēta, or Bucenta, close to the Acherusian Lake, and the remains of which are now to be found at the harbor of St. John. 3. Nicopolis, situate on an isthmus, on the coast, and answering now to Prevesa Vecchia. This place was founded by Augustus in commemoration of the victory obtained by him at Actium, and may be said to have arisen out of the ruins of all the surrounding cities in Epirus and Acarnania, and even as far as Ætolia, which were compelled to contribute to its prosperity. So anxious, indeed, was Augustus to raise his new colony to the highest rank among the cities of Greece, that he caused it to be admitted among those states which sent deputies to the Amphictyonic assembly. He also ordered games to be celebrated with great pomp every five years. Having afterward fallen into decay, it was restored by the Emperor Julian.

The Molossi must have possessed several towns in the interior, since we are told by Polybius that, out of the seventy Epirotic cities destroyed by Paulus Æmilius, the greater number belonged to this people. Few of these, however, are named in history. The most celebrated was Passaron, which may be considered as their capital, since Plutarch, in the life of Pyrrhus, reports that the kings of Epirus convened here the solemn assembly of the whole nation, when, after having performed the customary sacrifices, they took an oath that they would govern according to the established laws; and the people, in return, swore to maintain the constitution and defend the kingdom. Cramer seeks to identify it with some ruins near Joanina, in a south-southwest direction, and

about four hours from that city. Leake leaves the site uncertain.

Modern travellers have expressed some surprise that no mention is made in history of the Lake of Joanina, and have even been led to suppose that this considerable expanse of water could not have existed in ancient times. But the truth is, that the present Lake of Joanina is the ancient Palus Pambōtis ($\Pi a\mu b\bar{\omega}\tau_{ij}$ $\Lambda(\mu\eta\nu)$) mentioned by Eustathius. He describes it as a lake having an island in the middle, containing a remarkable hill, which was fortified by Justinian, and to which he removed the inhabitants of the adjacent city of Eurea, which was in a defenceless state. The fortress of Joanina now occupies the site of Justinian's castle, and the city of Joanina that of the ancient Eurea, in all probability.

We must now close this description of Epirus with some account of the city and republic of Ambrăcia. This celebrated city was situate on the banks of the Arachthus or Arethon, a short distance from the waters of the Sinus Ambracius, to which it gave name. It is said to have been founded by some Corinthians headed by Tolgus or Torgus, who was either the brother or the son of Cypselus, chief of Corinth. It early acquired maritime celebrity by reason of its advantageous position, and was a powerful and independent city toward the commencement of the Peloponnesian war, in which it espoused the cause of Corinth and Sparta. At a later period we find its independence threatened by

Philip, who seems to have entertained the project of annexing it to the dominions of his brother-in-law, Alexander, king of the Molossians. Whether it actually fell into the power of that monarch is uncertain, but there can be no doubt of its having been in the occupation of Philip, since the Ambraciots, according to Diodorus Siculus, on the accession of Alexander the Great to the throne, ejected the Macedonian garrison stationed in their city. Ambracia, however, did not long enjoy the freedom which it thus regained, for, having fallen into the hands of Pyrrhus, we are told that it was selected by that prince as his usual place of residence. Many years after, being under the dominion of the Ætolians, who were at that time involved in hostilities with the Romans, it sustained a siege against the latter, almost unequalled in the annals of ancient warfare for the gallantry and perseverance displayed in the defence of the place. Ambracia at last opened its gates to the foe, and was stripped of all the statues and pictures with which it had been so richly adorned by Pyrrhus. From this time it sank into a state of insignificance, and Augustus, by transferring its inhabitants to Nicopolis, completed its desolation. It stood near the modern Arta, which town also gives its modern name to the Ambracian Gulf.

CORCŸRA.

I. This celebrated island, which, from its vicinity to the coast of Epirus, seems naturally to belong to this part of our subject, was called by the Greeks $K\epsilon\rho\kappa\bar{\nu}\rho a$. It is now Corfu.

II. It is said to have been first known by the name of Drepāne, perhaps from its resemblance in shape to a scythe ($\delta penaivn$). To this name succeeded that of Scheria, always used by Homer, and by which it was probably known in his time. From the Odyssey we learn that this island was then inhabited by Phæacians, a people who, even at that early period, had acquired considerable skill in nautical affairs, and possessed extensive commercial relations, since they traded with the Phænicians, and also with Eubæa and other countries.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

I. Homer's account leads us to suppose that the Phæacians came from another country, which he calls $H\tilde{y}p\tilde{c}ria$, whence they had been expelled by their more powerful neighbors the Cyclopes. But it is very difficult to determine to what country he alludes. The commentators on the poet imagine that Sicily is meant, from the circumstance of Camarina, a city of that island, having once been called Hyperia; and also from the Cyclopes, according to Homer himself, having once had their abode in Sicily. But it seems very improbable that the Phæacians would have removed to such a distance, and it may be doubted, also, whether the Cyclopes were ever a real people.

II. It is more probable that the Pheacians came from the continent of Illyria or Epirus. Mannert thinks they were Liburnian Illyrians, and this is not unlikely, as we have seen that there was an island named Corcyra on their coast, and they were certainly a seafaring people. But what is still more conclusive is the fact mentioned by Strabo, that the Corinthians, when they colonized the island, found it already occupied by the Liburni. Apollonius states that Cor-

cyra had received a colony of Colchians before the arrival of the Corinthians. Plutarch speaks also of an Eretrian colony; but it is to Corinth that the importance of this settlement unquestionably belongs.

III. Strabo informs us that Archias, the founder of Syracuse, touched at Coreyra, on his way from Corinth to Sicily, for the purpose of landing Chersicrates, a descendant of the Heraclidæ, with a force sufficient to expel the Liburni then in possession of the island. The date of this event may be placed about 758 B.C. So rapid was the increase and prosperity of this new colony, that we find it able to cope with its opulent mother state not many years after its establishment, when it defied the power of Periander, who then had the sovereign direction of its affairs.

IV. At a later period we find Corcyra engaged in a quarrel with Corinth, on the subject of Epidamnus. A war followed between the states, which was a prelude to the great Peloponnesian war. Corcyra had at first the advantage, and defeated the Corinthian fleet off Actium; but the Corinthians being joined by other states of the Peloponnesus, the Corcyreans had recourse to Athens, which made a defensive alliance with them. The Corcyrean fleet of one hundred and ten triremes, besides ten auxiliary Athenian ships, engaged with the Corinthian fleet at the south entrance of the channel, near the coast of Thesprotia. The fight ended in favor of the Corinthians, but the appearance of a fresh Athenian squadron of twenty triremes induced them to return home. After this, Corcyra was distracted by civil commotions between the aristocratic and democratic factions, the former being favorable to the Peloponnesian or Spartan alliance, and the latter to the Athenian. Atrocities were committed by both, which ended in a general massacre of the aristocratic party, connived at by the Athenian commander. This tragedy occurred B.C. 425. The island remained in alliance with the Athenians until the end of the war.

V. The name of Corcyra does not again appear in history until the time of Cassander, when it was surprised and occupied for some time by Cleonymus, king of Sparta, who infested the seas of Greece and Italy with a piratical fleet. After his departure it was besieged by Cassander himself, at the head of a considerable squadron; but Agathocles, tyrant of Syracuse, having come to the assistance of the islanders, attacked the Macedonians, burned several of their ships, and dispersed the remainder. Corcyra was afterward attacked by Pyrrhus, when driven from the throne of Epirus by Ptolemy, king of Egypt. On the death of that prince it regained its independence for a short time, but it soon fell into the power of the Illyrians, from whom it subsequently passed to the Romans.

LOCALITIES OF CORCYRA.

Corcyra, the principal city of the island, was situate precisely where the modern town of Corfu stands. Scylax speaks of three harbors, one of which was remarkable for its beauty, and is probably that to which Thucydides gives the name of Hyllazcus. Near it was the citadel, and the more elevated part of the city. In the Middle Ages, the citadel obtained the name of $Kopv\phi\phi$, from its two conical hills or crests, which appellation was in process of time applied to the whole town, and finally to the island itself. Hence the modern name of the city and island of Corfu, which is but a corruption of the former name.

To the north of the city of Corcyra was the town and port of Cassiope, which has been already mentioned in speaking of the opposite coast of Epirus, where there was a town of the same name. It is supposed to have derived its name from a temple consecrated to Jupiter Cassius. Suetonius relates, that Nero, in a voyage made to this island, sang in public at the altar of the god.

Ptolemy also notices Cassiope, and near it a cape of the same name, Cassiope Promontorium, now Capo di Santa Caterina. The farthest point of the island to the northwest bore the appellation of Phalăcrum Promontorium, now Capo Drasti. More to the south, but on the same side, Ptolemy places a cape which he calls Amphipăgus, answering, probably, to the modern Capo S. Angelo. The southernmost extremity of the island was named Leucimna, according to Thucydides, near which lay the islets called Sybota. The modern name of the promontory is Capo Bianco.

Southeast of Corcyra are two small islands which bore anciently the common name of *Paxos*, but are now distinguished as *Paxo* and *Antipaxo*. Polybius speaks of a naval fight which took place in the vicinity between some Illyrian ships and a combined fleet of Achæans and Acarnanians, in which the latter were defeated. Pliny says they were five miles distant from Corcyra.

IX. THRACIA.

1. NAME, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. Thracia $(\Theta \rho \acute{a} \kappa \eta)$ was in ancient times the name of the country bounded on the north by the chain of Mount Hamus; on the south by the Egean and Propontis; on the east by the Euxine, and on the west by the River Strymon, and the chain of mountains forming the continuation of Mount $Rhod \breve{o} pe$.

II. The *Thracians* were divided into many separate and independent tribes; but the name of Thracians $(\Theta \rho \tilde{\rho} \kappa \epsilon \varsigma)$ seems to have been applied to them collectively in very early times. Thrace, according to Stephanus Byzantinus, was originally called Perce $(\Pi \epsilon \rho \kappa \eta)$.

Obs. 1. Ukert supposes *Perce* to mean any country in the north, and quotes the remark of Andron of Halicarnassus (*Schol. ad Lycophr.*, 894, 1283), that Oceanus had four daughters, Asia, Libya, Europa, and Thrace, from whom the four parts of the world were named; and thence he concludes that Asia signified the east, Libya the south, Europa the west, and Thrace the north. This conclusion, however, hardly amounts to a small probability. (*Ukert, Geogr. der. G. und R.*, i., p. 282.)

2. Josephus and many Biblical scholars suppose that the name is derived from *Tiras*, the son of Japhet (*Gen.*, x.,2); but this opinion rests on little more than an apparent similarity of sound.

2. HISTORICAL SKETCH.

I. The Thracians, of whom we are about to speak, must not be confounded with what are called the Old Thracians, and who are so intimately connected with the earliest literature of Greece. An account of these last will be given under the head of *Pieria*, in the account of *Macedonia*.

II. The Thracians are said to have been subdued by Sesostris (*Herod.*, ii., 103), and subsequently by the Mysians and Teucri, who crossed over into Europe before the Trojan war, and penetrated as far as the *Ionian Sea* and the *Peneus*. (*Herod.*, vii., 20.) But the first real historical event respecting them is their conquest by Megabazus, the general of Darius, who conquered all the

separate tribes with the exception of the Satra, who were the only Thracian people that had retained their independence down to the time of Herodotus.

w.H. After the failure of the expedition of Xerxes, the Thracians appear to have recovered their independence; and in the time of the Peloponnesian war, we find a powerful native empire in Thrace, which was under the dominion of Sitalces, who is called by Thucydides (ii., 29) King of the Thracians. This empire was founded by the father of Sitalces, Teres, king of the Odrysa, one of the most powerful of the Thracian tribes. It extended along the coast from Abdēra to the mouth of the Danube, and inland from Byzantium to the Lææi and the Strymon. The power of the Odrysian empire, however, did not last long. In little more than twenty years from the death of Sitalces it had lost its former greatness; and when Xenophon crossed over into Thrace in B.C. 400, he found Medocus, the reigning king of the Odrysians, unable to command the obedience of his Thracian subjects.

IV. In the reign of Philip, the father of Alexander, Cotys was the most powerful of the Thracian chiefs, and is usually called King of Thrace; but he was deprived by Philip of almost all his dominions between the Strymon and the Nestus, and became little else than a vassal of Macedon. He was a savage and vindictive barbarian, and was assassinated in B.C. 358. His son Cersobleptes succeeded to the throne, but he was eventually stripped of all his territories by Philip, who reduced, in B.C. 343, the whole of southern Thrace at least, and compelled it to pay tribute. On the death of Philip there was a general movement among the Thracians to throw off the Macedonian supremacy, at the head of which the Triballi placed themselves. But Alexander, by his activity, suppressed this rising: he crossed the range of Hæmus, marched into the country of the Triballi, and, after defeating them, advanced as far as the Danube, which he crossed, and offered a sacrifice on its right bank.

V. On the death of Alexander, Thrace fell to the share of Lysimachus, who erected it into an independent monarchy; but it subsequently came under the dominion of the Macedonian kings. They seem, however, to have left the country under the government of its native rulers, and were probably contented with what the Greeks called a hegemony. In the Roman war against Perseus, Cotys, king of the Thracians, is mentioned as an ally of Perseus, though the Thracians, just before the war broke out, had sought the alliance of the Romans. On the conclusion of the war, however, Cotys was allowed to continue in possession of his kingdom, notwithstanding the assistance he had rendered to Perseus.

VI. At what time Thrace was reduced to the form of a Roman province is uncertain, but it seems not to have constituted a distinct province until a late period. Under Augustus, the country north of Hæmus was conquered by the Romans, and was afterward erected into a separate province named Mæsia. It is from this time that the range of Mount Hæmus becomes, strictly speaking, the northern boundary of Thrace. The boundary on the west differed at various times. In the time of Ptolemy it seems to have been the Nestus; but the more ancient boundary was the Strymon, as we have given it.

3. MOUNTAINS.

I. Hæmus, a range of mountains, stretching its great belt round the north of Thrace, in a direction nearly parallel with the Ægean. The modern name is *Emineh Dag*, or *Balkan*.

The ancients regarded this range as one of the highest with which they were acquainted. Polybius, however, thought it inferior in elevation to the Alps, in which he was doubtless correct. It was reported that from the summit could be seen at once the Euxine, the Adriatic, the Danube, and the Alps. The length of the chain of Hæmus is five hundred miles, from the Gulf of Venice to the Black Sea.

II. Rhodope, a mountain range, forming in a great degree the western boundary of Thrace, and evidently identical with the *Scomius* of Thucydides. It is now *Despoto-Dag*. Theoritus classes it with the highest summits of the ancient world.

III. Pangæus, a ridge apparently connected with the central chain of Rhodope and Hæmus, and which, branching off in a southeasterly direction, closed upon the coast at the defile of Acontisma. It is now called Pundar Dagh, or Castagnats. Herodotus informs us that Mount Pangæus contained gold and silver mines, which were worked by the Pieres, Odomanti, and Satræ, clans of Thrace, but especially the latter. These valuable mines naturally attracted the attention of the Thasians, who were the first settlers on this coast, and they accordingly formed an establishment in this vicinity at a place named Crenides.

4. PROMONTORIES.

1. Philia Promontorium, called, also, Hæmi Extrema, the eastern extremity of the chain of Mount Hæmus, forming a bold promontory, running out into the Euxine, and now Cape Emineh. 2. Thynias Promontorium, below the preceding, and on the same sea, now Cape Inada, or, as some call the name, Kiada. 3. Hestias Promontorium and Chrysoceras, both near Byzantium. 4. Mastusia Promontorium, at the entrance of the Hellespont, now Capo Greco, or Jenischer. 5. Sarpedonium Promontorium, at the upper entrance of the Melas Sinus, and now Cape Dragontina. Some, less correctly, make this correspond to Capo Greco. 6. Serrheum Promontorium, to the northwest, now Capo Makri. 7. Ismarium Promontorium, to the west of the preceding, now Capo Marogna.

5. RIVERS.

- 1. Hebrus, now the Maritza, one of the most considerable rivers in Europe. It rises in the chain of Hæmus, which separates the plains of Thrace from the great valley of the Danube, and, after receiving several tributaries, falls into the Ægean near the city of Enos. An estuary, which it forms at its mouth, was called Stentoris Palus, now the Gulf of Enos. The sands of this river were said to be auriferous. According to the ancient mythologists, after Orpheus had been torn in pieces by the Thracian Bacchantes, his head and lyre were cast into the Hebrus, and, being carried down the river to the sea, were borne by the waves to the island of Lesbos. At the junction of the Hebrus with the Tonskus and Harpessus, Orestes was said to have purified himself from his mother's blood. Several streams swell the waters of the Hebrus. First, on the right or southern bank, the Harpessus, now Arda; then, a short distance from this, on the left or northern bank, the Tonskus or Tonzus of Ptolemy, now the Tonia: then the Artiscus of Herodotus, now the Bujuk-dere; farther south it is joined by the Agrianes, now the Ergene, which, according to the same historian, receives the Contadesdus, now the Saradjala; and the Contadesdus, the Tearus, now the Teke-dere. It was at the head of this last river that Darius, in his Scythian expedition, erected a pillar, with an inscription, pronouncing the water of the Tearus to be the purest and best in the universe.
- 2. Nestus (less correctly Nessus) formed the boundary between Thrace and Macedonia in the time of Philip and Alexander, and this arrangement subsequently remained unchanged by the Romans on their conquest of the latter empire. According to Thucydides, it rose in Mount Scomius. The Nestus fell into the Ægean opposite the island of Thasos, and a short distance to the west of Abdēra. In the Middle Ages its name was corrupted to Mestus, and is still called Mesto by the modern Greeks. The Turkish name is Kara-su, or "Black Water."
- 3. Strymon, rising in the chain of Mount Scomius, and after a course of nearly two hundred miles falling into the Sinus Strymonicus, to which it gave name. The Strymon formed

the earlier boundary between Macedonia and Thrace, and continued so until the time of Philip and Alexander, when Macedonia was extended more to the east, and the Nestus became the boundary. The modern name of the Strymon is the Struma, according to Leake, who also makes the Turkish name the same as that of the Nestus, namely, the Kara-su. The modern name of the Sinus Strymonicus is the Gulf of Contessa. Its northern extremity, however, according to Leake, is called the Bay of Rendina.

6. STRAITS, &c.

- 1. Hellespontus, now the Dardanelles, and, according to mythologists, deriving its name from the circumstance of Helle's having been drowned therein, $^*E\lambda\lambda\eta\varsigma$ $\pi\delta\nu\tau o\varsigma$, "the Sea of Helle." The modern name is supposed to come from the ancient Dardania in its vicinity. The Hellespont is famed for the bridge of boats built over it by Xerxes, and also for the legend of Hero and Leander. Passing up this strait, we have on the left the Thracian Chersonese, which remains to be described. We pass from the Hellespont into the Propontis, or Sea of Marmara, and on reaching its upper extremity we come to the Thracian Bospõrus, now the Strait of Constantinople, and which has already been referred to elsewhere (p. 9, seq.). The Propontis received its ancient name from the circumstance of its lying in front of or before the Pontus Euxinus ($\pi\rho\delta$ Πόντον). The modern appellation comes from the modern name of the island of Proconnesus, which will be described in the account of Asia Minor.
- 2. Emerging from the *Thracian Bosporus*, we enter on the Euxine, of which an account has already been given (p. 236). At the northeastern extremity of the Euxine we come to the *Cimmerian Bospŏrus* and the *Tauric Chersonese*, which, not belonging to the geography of Greece, have been elsewhere described (p. 9, 237, seqq.).

7. PRODUCTS.

CORN in abundance in the Thracian Chersonese, which hence formed one of the granaries of Athens; fruit in the plains, but not in the high and bleak mountains; wine, oil; various metals, but more especially gold.

8. CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.

- I. The Thracian nation, according to Herodotus, was, next to the Indians, the most numerous of all, and, if united under one head, would have been invincible. He observes that the usages of the different tribes were similar, with the exception of the Geta, the Trausi, and those who dwelt above the Crestonai. The account which he gives of the most striking national peculiarities of the Thracians represent them as a savage and barbarous people, which is supported by other ancient writers, though the districts on the southern coast seem to have attained to some degree of civilization, owing to the numerous Greek cities which were founded there at various times.
- II. The Thracians, according to Herodotus, sold their children to be carried out of the country as slaves; they purchased their wives with great sums; they punctured or tattooed their bodies, and regarded this as a mark of noble birth; agriculture they despised, and considered it most honorable to live by war and

robbery. Deep drinking prevailed among them extensively, and the quarrels over their cups became almost proverbial. In the time of Xerxes the Thracian warrior carried a shield, and was dressed in goat-skin trowsers; a fox-skin cap covered his head; a spear and dagger were his weapons of offence. Human sacrifices were customary on important national occasions.

9. THRACIAN TRIBES.

1. The *Triballi*, in the northwest, about the *Angrus*, extending east to the River *Oscius*, in the territory of the modern *Sophia*. They consequently occupied modern *Servia* and a portion of *Bulgaria*. They were so powerful that, in the time of the Peloponnesian war, they wrested the power from the *Odrysa*, and sent thirty thousand men to destroy *Abdera*. But soon after the reign of Alexander they were so oppressed by the *Gauls* and *Bastarna*, and then so roughly handled by the Illyrian *Autariata*, that the remainder of them were fain to cross the Danube, and seek refuge among the Getæ.

2. The *Crobyzi*, eastward of the foregoing, and extending to the River *Iantra*.

3. The *Trausi*, who wept when their children were born, and were loud in their expressions of joy at the death of their friends.

4. The *Dii*, in Mount *Rhodope*, probably the same as the *Dahi*, and called by the Greeks *Macharophori*, from their short dirks.

5. The *Bessi*, descended from the preceding, and dwelling in that quarter where Rhodope diverges from Hæmus; these were the most barbarous of all the Thracians, being mere robbers.

6. The *Satra*, a branch of the Bessi, resident in the snow-clad mountains between the Nestus and the Strymon. They had an oracle of Bacchus, the interpreters of which were taken from the *Bessi*.

7. The *Treres* and *Tilatai*, about the head of the *Angrus*.

8. The *Dolonci*, in the Thracian Chersonese. 9. The *Apsinthii*, neighbors of the preceding. 10. The *Pati*, on the River Hebrus. 11. The *Cicones*, next to them on the west, famous for their wine, gold, and cavalry. 12. The *Bistones*, about the Lake *Bistonis*, where Pliny subsequently places the *Corpilli*, in the Corpillian pass. 13. The *Sapaci* or *Saii*, at the mouth of the Nestus, near the Sapacan defile and the forts or castles of the Pierians. 14. The *Odomanti*, who, as well as the *Satra*, worked the gold mines of *Pangaus*. 15. The *Edones*, at the mouth of the Strymon, in whose country the Athenians built Amphipolis. 16. The *Odrysa*, of whom we have already spoken in the Historical Sketch of Thrace.

10. CITIES OF THRACE.

In the territory of the Edones we have, 1. Myrcinus, one of their principal towns, on the left bank of the Strymon, near its mouth, and to the southeast of the Cercinitis Palus, now Lake Takinos. This city is often mentioned by Herodotus as the place chosen by Histiæus of Miletus for his settlement, which was granted to him by Darius, in consideration of the important services he had rendered that sovereign in the Scythian expedition. The advantages which this situation presented to the enterprising Ionian consisted in an abundant supply of timber for ship-building, the number of mariners and soldiers which the country afforded, the richness of the mines it contained, and

its proximity to the Greek colonies. His designs, however, did not escape the vigilant observation of Megabyzus, who commanded the Persian army in Thrace, and, on his representation to Darius, Histiæus was recalled. At the time of the Peloponnesian war, Myrcinus had fallen again into the hands of the Edones, but it subsequently went over to Brasidas. uation of the place probably corresponds to that of Orphano. 2. Near this town was 'Evvéa 'Oδοί, called by the Latin writers Novem Viæ, a spot doubtless deriving its name from the number of roads which met here from different parts of Thrace and Macedon; a supposition confirmed by travellers who have explored this country, and who report that all the principal communications between the coast and the plains must have led through this pass. It was here, according to Herodotus, that Xerxes and his army crossed the Strymon on bridges, after having offered a sacrifice of white horses to that river, and buried alive nine youths and maidens. 3. In this immediate vicinity the Athenians afterward founded a colony, which became so celebrated under the name of Amphipolis, an appellation derived from the circumstance of its being surrounded on two sides by the River Strymon, which a little above the city made a considerable lake or marsh. The position of Amphipolis was one of the most important in Greece. It stood in a pass which traversed the mountains bordering on the Sinus Strymonicus, and commanded the only easy communication from the coast of that gulf into the great Macedonian plains. The surrender of Amphipolis to Brasidas was a severe blow to the prosperity and good fortune of the Athenians, and Thucydides, who arrived too late with the fleet to prevent its falling into the hands of the enemy, was banished in consequence. Cleon was sent to recover possession of the place, but his army was totally routed, and he himself slain. Brasidas, also, who was commander against him, received a mortal wound in the conflict. Amphipolis, after this, never came again into the hands of the Athenians. It was subsequently taken by Philip, and from that time became a Macedonian town. On the subjugation of this country by the Romans, it was constituted the chief town of the first region of the conquered territory. Under the Byzantine empire it seems to have exchanged its name for that of Chrysopolis. The spot on which its ruins may still be traced bears the name of Jenikeui.

4. Eion, at the mouth of the Strymon, a colony of Mende in Macedonia, distant twenty-five stadia from Amphipolis, of which, according to Thucydides, it was the port. It was from this place that Xerxes sailed to Asia, on his return from Greece after the battle of Salamis. Boges was left in command of the town on the retreat of the Persian armies, and made a most gallant defence when besieged by the Grecian forces under Cimon. On the total failure, however, of all means of subsistence, he destroyed himself, together with his family and all his valuables. In the Middle Ages a Byzantine town was built on the site of Eion, which now bears the name of Contessa.

Continuing along the coast to the east of the Strymon, we find a small part of the Edonian territory inhabited by the Pières, a people of whom we will make further mention under the head of Macedonia. Thucydides informs us that, on their expulsion from that country, they retired across the Strymon, and settled on the shores of the Sinus Strymonicus, which was sometimes called, from them, Sinus Pièricus. Herodotus mentions Pergamus and Phagres as two of their fortresses, near which the Persian army passed on their march toward Greece. To the east of these was Esyme, or, as Homer writes the name, Esyme, a sea-port town. In the time of Stephanus Byzantinus it was called Emathia. Its site appears to have been near the modern $Eski\ Cavala$.

Resuming our survey of the Edonian cities, we come to, 5. Scapte-Hyle (Σκαπτὴ "Υλη), called, also, Scaptesyle (Σκαπτησύλη), a small place to the northeast of Œsyme, celebrated for its rich gold mines, which, according to Herodotus, belonged to the Thasians, and produced annually eighty talents. In these mines Thucydides the historian had some property, as he informs us, and, according to Marcellinus, he had obtained this by marrying a Thracian heiress. The same writer states that he resided here after his banishment, and employed himself in arranging the materials for his history. According to D'Anville and Reichard, this place answers to the modern Skepsilar. 6. Datos, a sea-port, to the northeast, was the scene of an engagement between the natives and the Athenian colonists, who had attempted to settle in this territory, with a view of possessing themselves of the gold mines. The latter were defeated with great loss. According to Strabo, the territory of Datos

presented great advantages; it was highly fertile, and possessed excellent docks for the construction of ships, and most valuable gold mines. Hence arose the proverb $\Delta \acute{a}\tau o ; \acute{a}\gamma a\theta \~{\omega}\nu , i.e.,$ "an abundance of good things." Leake thinks that Datos and Ne-apolis, or the modern Cavala, were one and the same place, though on maps they are laid down as separate but closely-contiguous places.

On reaching the defile of *Acontisma*, to the east of Datos, we encounter the range of Pangæus, already referred to, and which, coming down in a northwest direction, closes here upon the coast. This celebrated ridge forms at this point a natural division between the maritime part of the district which we are considering and the interior, and to the latter we now turn.

The chief place of importance in the interior of the Edonian territory was Crenides, afterward Philippi. It seems that the valuable mines in Mount Pangæus naturally attracted the attention of the Thasians, who were the first settlers on this coast, and they accordingly formed an establishment in this vicinity, at a place called Crenides (Κρηνίδες), from the circumstance of its being surrounded by numerous sources (κρῆναι). which descended from the neighboring mountains. Philip of Macedon having turned his attention to the affairs of Thrace, the possession of Crenides and Mount Pangeus naturally entered into his views. Accordingly, he invaded this country, expelled the feeble Cotys from his throne, and then proceeded to found a new city on the site of the old Thasian colony, which he named after himself, Philippi. When Macedonia became subject to the Romans, the advantages attending the peculiar situation of Philippi induced that people to settle a colony there; and we know from the Acts of the Apostles that it was already. at that period, one of the most flourishing cities of this part of their empire. It is, moreover, celebrated in history from the great victory gained here by Antony and Octavianus over the forces of Brutus and Cassius, by which the republican party was completely subdued. Philippi, however, is rendered far more interesting from the circumstance of its being the first place in Europe where the Gospel was preached by St. Paul (A.D. 51). The ruins of the place still retain the name of Filibah. Theophrastus speaks of the Rosa centifolia, which grew in great beauty near Philippi, being indigenous on Mount Pangæus. Nicander mentions another sort which bloomed in the gardens of Midas, in Thrace.

In the territory of the Satræ, Sapæi, and Bistones, we find, 1. Nicopolis ad Nestum, near the River Nestus, and now Nicopoli. 2. Abdera, on the sea, and to the east of the River Nestus. This was an opulent and celebrated Greek city, founded originally by Timesius of Clazoměnæ; but as this settlement did not prosper, owing to the enmity of the natives, it was subsequently recolonized by a large body of Teians from Ionia, who, as Herodotus asserts, had abandoned their city when it was besieged by Harpagus, a general of Cyrus. It was already a large and wealthy town when Xerxes arrived there on his way to Greece. On that same monarch's return from Greece, he presented the town with his golden cimeter and train as an acknowledgment of the reception he had met with there. We learn from Thucydides that Abdera was the limit of the Odrysian empire to the west. Abdera continued to increase in prosperity and importance, and its having given birth to the two philosophers Democritus and Protagoras added much to its celebrity. Still, however, notwithstanding this, the people of Abdera, as a body, were reputed to be a stupid race, and many sayings arose at their expense. In the Middle Ages it degenerated into a very small town, to which the name of Polystylus was attached. Its ruins are said to exist near Cape Ba*loustra*. A short distance to the north of Abdera were the city and lake of Pistyrus, and beyond these, in the territory of the Bistones, was another lake named Bistonis Lacus, into which flowed two rivers, namely, the Travus and Compsatus. 3. Dicaa, a Greek city, on the shore of the Bistonis Lacus, and the site of which is thought to be marked by the modern Boar Kalis.

Passing into the territory of the Cicones, we come to, 1. Maronea, on the coast, at the mouth of the River Schænus, and a Greek town of some note. According to Scymnus, it was founded by a colony from Chios. Pliny states that the more ancient name was Ortagurea. The same writer extols the excellence of its wine. The ruins of this place still retain the name of Marogna. 2. Serrhēum, to the east, near the promontory of the same name, and now Macri. 3. Zonē, to the southeast of the preceding, and in the neighborhood of which

Orpheus drew down after him the woods and wild beasts. 4. Doriscus, a fortress in a vast plain, near the coast, watered by the great river Hebrus. The fortress was erected by order of Darius, at the time of his Scythian expedition. Here it was that Xerxes numbered the multitude he was conducting into Greece. Doriscus was near the Hebrus. An estuary at the mouth of this river was called Stentoris Palus. Crossing the Hebrus, we come to the territory of the Apsynthii, in which we need mention only the city of *Enos*, at the mouth of the Stentoris Palus, where it communicates by a narrow passage with the sea. Herodotus calls it an Æolic city, without specifying from which of the Æolic settlements it derived its origin; but Scymnus ascribes its foundation to Mytilene. Apollodorus and Strabo inform us that its more ancient name was Poltyobria, or the "City of Poltys," with regard to the termination of which word, consult page 161 of this work. Virgil supposes Æneas to have landed on this coast after leaving Troy, and to have discovered here the tomb of the murdered Polydorus; healso intimates that he founded a city here, which he named after himself. This, however, is mere poetic fiction. Homer, moreover, makes Ænos to have existed before the siege of Troy. After the death of Lysimachus, Ænos, together with Maronea, and the other places on this part of the Thracian coast, fell into the possession of the kings of Egypt. It afterward was betrayed into the hands of the Macedonian monarch Philip, and subsequently fell under the Roman power. The Romans made it a free city. The modern name remains the same as the ancient. After leaving Ænos, the coast makes a bold indentation, forming the Melas Sinus, now the Gulf of Saros, into which empties a river called anciently the Melas, and now the Cavatcha. This brings us to the Thracian Chersonese.

CHERSONESUS.

I. Thouse the Thracian Chersonese, or, as it is sometimes designated, the Chersonese on the Hellespont, formed but a small portion of the extensive country to which it was annexed, yet its fertility of soil and proximity to the coast of Asia Minor early attracted an influx of Grecian settlers, and its shores soon became crowded with flourishing and populous cities.

II. We are told by Thucydides that, during the siege of Troy, this country was always occupied by a large portion of the Grecian armament, stationed there to cultivate the soil, and furnish provisions for the besieging force. Euripides, however, says that it was in the possession of Polymestor.

III. From Herodotus we learn, that in after times the Dolonci, a Thracian tribe, holding the Chersonese, were engaged in war with the neighboring Apsynthii, and, finding themselves unable to resist these more warlike adversaries, consulted the oracle of Delphi. The god, in reply, advised them to elect for their chief the first person to whom they should stand indebted for the rites of hospitality on their return homeward. Accordingly, as they passed through Attica, they were invited into the house of Miltiades, a noble and wealthy Athenian. The Dolonci, having acquainted Miltiades with the oracle delivered to them, offered him the sovereignty of their country, which he accepted, and, having quitted Attica, he took possession of his newly-acquired principality. At his death his nephew Stesagoras succeeded, who afterward bequeathed the crown to his brother, the famous Miltiades, son of Cimon. This celebrated character was compelled to flee from the Chersonese, and withdrew to Athens, from dread of the vengeance of Darius, whose enmity he had provoked.

IV. On the invasion of Xerxes, the Chersonese was overrun with Persian troops, by whom several of its towns were garrisoned; but, after the battles of Salamis and Mycale, the Grecian fleet removed to the Hellespont, and succeeded in reconquering the whole of the country, which henceforth became dependent on Athens, until the disastrous battle of Ægospotamos, when it resumed its state of independence. Dercyllidas, a Lacedæmonian general, who had a command in Asia Minor, raised a fortification, at the request of the inhabitants, across the isthmus, and by this great undertaking effectually secured the country from the incursions of the Thracians.

V. In the reign of Philip, we find Cersobleptes, the son of Cotys, acknowledged as sovereign of the Chersonese; but of this possession he was deprived by the Athenians, as he had been of the rest of his territory by the King of Macedon. The Athenians, not long after, sent a colony under the direction of Diopeithes, to strengthen their settlements in that quarter. Philip subsequently made an attempt to conquer the Hellespontine cities, but, having failed in the siege of Perinthus and Byzantium, he was compelled to withdraw his forces. The towns of the Chersonese made a decree on that occasion, by which they awarded a crown of gold, and erected an altar to Gratitude and the Athenian people for their deliverance from the enemy.

VI. After the death of Alexander, the Chersonese, together with a large portion of Thrace, was allotted to Lysimachus, who founded on the isthmus the city of Lysimachūa, which he made his principal residence. At the beginning of the Macedonian war, most of the Chersonitic towns were in the occupation of Philip, son of Demetrius, afterward of Antiochus, and finally of the Romans.

CITIES OF THE CHERSONESE.

On crossing the River Melas, we come to, 1, the port of $D\bar{e}ris$; then 2, follows Cobrys, which Scylax calls the haven of Cardia. Next in order we have, 3. Cardia, a town of some note, situate at a short distance from the sea, and near the isthmus. It owed its origin, as Scymnus reports, to some Clazomenians and Milesians. Pliny asserts that it took its name from its position, the ground on which it stood being shaped like a human heart $(\kappa a \rho \delta ia)$. Eumenes, one of Alexander's most able generals, and Hieronymus the historian, were natives of Cardia. When Lysimachus took possession of the Chersonese, and the towns on the Thracian side of the Hellespont, he founded a city near the site of Cardia, which was then fast declining in prosperity, and transferred the greater part of its inhabitants to this new settlement, which was called Lysimachia, after his name. On his death, this new city fell successively into the hands of

Seleucus and Ptolemy, and Philip, king of Macedon. It afterward suffered considerably from the attacks of the Thracians, and was nearly in ruins, when it was restored by Antiochus, king of Syria. On the defeat of that monarch by the Romans it was bestowed by them upon Eumenes, king of Pergamus. In the Middle Ages, the name of Lysimachia was lost in that of *Hexamilion*, a fortress constructed probably out of its ruins, and so called, doubtless, from the width of the isthmus on which Lysimachia stood, namely, six miles.

4. Alopeconnēsus, some distance to the southwest of the preceding, and near the lower extremity of the Chersonese. It was an Æolian colony, and is mentioned by Demosthenes as one of the chief towns in this quarter of Thrace. According to Athenæus, trufles of excellent quality grew near it. The site is now called Alexi. 5. Eleus, to the south of the preceding, and very near the lower extremity of the Chersonese. It contained a temple and shrine of Protesilaus. Strabo remarks that the name of this town is of the masculine gender. 6. Cynossēma, to the northeast, on the shore of the Hellespont. It was so called ("the dog's monument") from the tradition relating to the metamorphosis and death of Hecuba on that spot. Here the Athenian fleet, under the command of Thrasybulus and Thrasyllus, gained an important victory over the allied squadron toward the close of the Peloponnesian war. The site is said to be now occupied by the Turkish fortress of the Dardanelles, called Kelidil-bahar.

7. Madytus, to the northeast, mentioned by Demosthenes among the principal towns of the Chersonese. The name of Maito is still attached to the site on which it stood. 8. Sestos, to the northeast, and always considered, from its situation on the Hellespont, as a most important city, as it commanded, in a great measure, that narrow channel. It appears to have been founded at an early period by some Æolians, as well as Abydos on the opposite coast. The story of Hero and Leander, and, still more, the passage of the vast armament of Xerxes, have rendered Sestos celebrated in ancient history. Herodotus states that the foot of the bridge was placed on the European side, between Sestos and Madytus, the breadth of the Hellespont being in this part only seven stadia, whereas from Sestos to Abydos the distance was thirty. The Athenians, when at the height of their power, justly attached the greatest value to the possession of Sestos, which enabled them to command the active trade of the Euxine. Hence they were wont to term it the corn-chest of the Piræus. After the battle of Ægospotamos, Sestos received its independence; but the Athenians, many years after, having resolved to recover that fertile province, sent Chares to the Hellespont with a considerable force. Sestos, after a short resistance, was taken by assault, when Chares barbarously caused all the male inhabitants capable of bearing arms to be put to death. This severe blow probably caused the ruin of the town, as from this time little mention of it occurs in history. Strabo, however, speaks of Sestos as being a considerable place in his time. He observes that the current which flowed from the shore near Sestos greatly facilitated the navigation of vessels from that place, the reversebeing the case with these sailing from Abydos. According to Mannert, the site of Sestos is now called Jalowa.

To the northeast of Sestos we find $E_{gospotămos}$, a small river, which apparently gave its name to a town or port situated at its mouth. Here the Athenian fleet was totally defeated by the Spartan admiral Lysander; an event which completely destroyed the power of the former, and finally led to the capture of Athens itself. The village of Galata probably stands on the site of the port of $E_{gospotamos}$.

9. Callipolis, about five miles beyond the preceding, and now Gallipoli. A Byzantine writer ascribes its foundation and name to Callias, an Athenian general; while another, probably with more correctness, derives its appellation from the beauty of the site. From the itineraries we learn that Callipolis was the point whence it was usual to cross the Hellespont to Lampsacus or Abydos. It is from Gallipoli that the Chersonese now takes its name as a Turkish province.

10. Pactye, the last town of the Chersonese on the Hellesport. It owed its origin to Miltiades, according to Scylax and Scymnus. To this place Alcibiades

retired when banished for the second time by his countrymen.

Before proceeding with the remainder of the geography of Thrace, we will find it more convenient to notice certain northern islands of the Ægean, which lay at no great distance from the coast of Thrace. These are,

1. THXSOS.

I. The island of Thăsos lay off that part of the coast of Thrace where the River Nestus empties into the Ægean. According to Herodotus, it received at a very early period a colony of Phænicians, under the conduct of Thasus, that enterprising people having already formed settlements in several islands of the Ægean. They were induced to possess themselves of Thasos from the valuable silver mines which it contained, and which it appears they afterward worked with unremitting assiduity.

II. Herodotus, who visited this island, reports, that a large mountain on the side of Samothrace had been turned upside down (in Greek ἀνεστραμμένον) in search of the precious metal. Thasos, at a later period, was colonized by a party of Parians, pursuant to the command of an oracle delivered to the father of the poet Archilochus. From this document, quoted by Stephanus, we learn

that the earlier name of the island was Æria.

III. On the expulsion of the Persians from Greece, Thasos, together with the other islands on this coast, became tributary to Athens. Dispute, however, having arisen between the islanders and that power on the subject of the mines on the Thracian coast, a war ensued, and the Thracians were besieged for three years. On their surrender, their fortifications were destroyed, and their ships of war removed to Athens. Thasos once more revolted after the great failure of the Athenians in Sicily; at which time, also, a change was effected in the government of the island from democracy to oligarchy.

IV. According to Herodotus, the revenues of Thasos were very considerable: they commonly amounted to two hundred, and sometimes to three hundred talents annually. These funds were principally derived from the mines of

Skapte-Hyle on the Thracian coast.

V. The capital of the island was the city of Thasos. Besides this, we hear of two others, named Enyra and Canyra, situate in that part of the island which looks toward Samothrace.

VI. Thasos, besides gold and silver, furnished marbles and wine, which were much esteemed. The soil, moreover, was excellent. The modern name is *Tasso*.

2. SAMOTHRĀCE.

I. The island of Samothrācē lay to the southeast of Thasos, and opposite the Melas Sinus. It bore various names at different periods, being called Dardania, Electris, Melīte, &c. The name of Samothrace ("Thracian Samos") is said to have been given to it by a colony from the Ionian Samos, though Strabo conceives this assertion to have been an invention of the Samians.

II. Though insignificant in itself, considerable celebrity attaches to this island

from the worship of the Cabiri, which appears to have been brought into it by the Phænicians. According to Herodotus, however, Samothrace was originally inhabited by the Pelasgi, from whom the inhabitants, as he affirms, learned the religious mysteries which they solemnized. These mysteries imparted a kind of sacred character to the island, and rendered it a species of asylum; and it was here that Perseus, king of Macedonia, took refuge after the battle of Pydna. The Romans, however, seized him here when preparing to escape from Demetrium, a small harbor near one of the promontories of the island. Stephanus informs us that there was a town of the same name with the island. Samothrace contains a very high mountain, called Sacce by Pliny, and from which Homer says that Troy could be seen. The modern name of the island is Samothraki. Samothrace was reduced, in the reign of Vespasian, along with the other isles of the Ægean, to the form of a province.

Reserving an account of *Lemnos* and *Tenedos* for the general description of the Asiatic islands, we will now return to the cities of Thrace.

CITIES OF THRACE BEYOND THE CHERSONESUS.

Leaving the Μακρον Τείχος, or Long Wall, erected, as already mentioned, by Dercyllidas the Lacedæmonian, across the isthmus of the Chersonese, and proceeding along the coast of the Propontis, we come to, 1. Leuce Acte (Λευκή 'Ακτή), or "the White Shore," a town and roadstead, now Santo Giorgio. 2. Heraclēa, now Heraclitza. 3. Bisanthe, a Samian colony, called at a later period Rhadestus, and now Rodosto. 4. Perinthus, also a colony of Samos, and one of the most flourishing cities on the Propontis, becoming eventually the rival of Byzantium. It subsequently suffered from the attacks of the Thracians, but principally from those of Philip of Macedon, who besieged and vigorously pressed the city, but was unable to take it. It continued to be a flourishing place, even under the Roman power, until the seat of empire was transferred to Byzantium. About this last-mentioned period, moreover, it appears with the additional name of Heraclea, without our being able to ascertain either the exact cause or time of the change. With the writers of the fourth century, this name Heraclea became the more usual one; sometimes, however, they join both names together. Perinthus could not but be an important city under the eastern empire, since all the roads to Byzantium from Italy and Greece met here. The modern Erekli occupies the site of the ancient city. 5. Selybria, a Megarian colony, and founded at a still earlier period than Byzantium. The name of its founder, the leader of the colony, was Selys (Σηλυς); at least Strabo explains the name by Σήλνος πόλις, "the city of

Selys," the term bria being the Thracian word for "a city." It became a flourishing place and one of considerable strength, and for a long time defended itself against the inroads of the Thracians, and the attempts of Philip of Macedon. It fell at last, however, into the hands of that monarch, and after this event sank in importance. With the common people, in the Doric dialect, the form Salabria was used. At a later period it changed its name to that of Eudoxiopolis, in honor of Eudoxia, the wife of the Emperor Arcadius, but the earlier appellation was not thereby disused, and the modern Selivria is a corruption of it.

6. Byzantium, an ancient Greek city, occupying part of the site of modern Constantinople. According to Eusebius and other ancient authorities, it was founded by a colony from Megara, B.C. 658, seventeen years after the building of Calchēdon (less correctly written Chalcedon), on the opposite or Asiatic shore of the Bosporus, by another colony from Megara. Others say that the first colonists of Byzantium were a mixed people from Megara and Argos. They were, however, a Dorian colony, and Doric customs and the Doric dialect continued to prevail at Byzantium for many centuries. Strabo, Pliny, and other ancient writers speak of the abundance of fish at Byzantium, especially of the Pelamys kind, which, coming down in shoals from the Palus Mæotis, and round by the eastern and southern shore of the Euxine, entered the Bosporus, whence the harbor of Byzantium was called Chrysoceras, or "the Golden Horn," in consequence of the riches derived from the fishery. The Byzantines salted the fish, which was an article of considerable trade. The harbor of Byzantium became a place of resort for vessels trading with the Euxine, the northern coasts of which already, in the time of Herodotus, supplied with corn, as they do now, Greece and other countries of the Mediterranean. The name of Byzantium is said to be derived from Byzas, the leader of the Megarean colony. In the reign of Darius Hystaspis, the Persian satrap Otanes took both Calchedon and Byzantium. After the battle of Platæa, however, Pausanias, at the head of the united Greek forces, retook the place, and a fresh colony of mixed Athenians and Lacedæmonians was sent to it. This second colony has given occasion to Justin and other writers to say that Byzantium was founded

by Pausanias. The possession of this place fluctuated between the Lacedæmonians and Athenians, it having been frequently taken and retaken, until Thrasybulus drove the Lacedæmonians away, B.C. 390, and changed the form of government, which was before oligarchical, into a democracy. It appears, however, that there was a class of the original inhabitants of the country, who were treated by the Greek Byzantines pretty much as the Helots were treated at Sparta.

Philip of Macedon, having extended his conquests into Thrace, laid siege to Byzantium. The Byzantines made a bold defence, and Philip's army became distressed for want of provisions and money. Philip relieved his wants by seizing one hundred and seventy ships and confiscating their cargoes. On a dark night Philip's soldiers were near surprising the town, when a light suddenly shone forth from the north, and revealed to the inhabitants their danger. In gratitude for this, the Byzantines built an altar to Diana, and assumed the crescent as the emblem of their city. The crescent is found on several medals of Byzantium, and it is said that the Turks, on their conquest of Constantinople, adopted it for their own device. Under Alexander the Great and Lysimachus, who, after his death, succeeded to the government of Thrace, Byzantium was obliged to submit to the Macedonians; but it afterward recovered its municipal independence, which it retained till the time of the Roman emperors. Its commerce was prosperous, but it was exposed on the land side to continued incursions of Thracians, Scythians, and other barbarians, who ravaged its territory, cut down the harvest, and reduced it to great distress. The most troublesome of these incursions was that of the Gauls, who overran Macedonia and Northern Greece about 270 B.C. The Byzantines, in order to have some respite from them, were obliged to pay heavy sums, from three thousand to ten thousand pieces of gold a year, and at last as much as eighty talents, to save their lands from being ravaged in harvest time. These and other burdens compelled them to have recourse to extraordinary measures for raising money, one of which was the exacting of a toll from all ships passing through the Bosporus, which became the cause of a war between Byzantium and Rhodes, about 221 B.C.

Byzantium allied itself to Rome against Philip II. of Mace-

donia, as well as against Antiochus and Mithradates. In consequence of its services, it retained its liberty as a free town, confederate with Rome, and its envoys were treated as foreign ambassadors. They were subject, however, to a tribute, at least under the first emperors, which Claudius remitted for five years, in consideration of their losses during the Thracian war. In consequence of some fresh domestic broils, Vespasian took away their liberties and sent them a governor. In the civil war between Severus and Pescennius Niger, the Byzantines took the part of the latter, and were severely punished for this by Severus, the armed men and chief citizens being put to death, the walls being razed, and the remaining inhabitants being placed under the jurisdiction of Perinthus. Severus, however, relented afterward, and, visiting Byzantium, took pains to embellish the town, and gave it the name of Augusta Antonina, in honor of his son Antoninus Bassianus, or Caracalla. Byzantines afterward had the misfortune of offending Gallienus, who massacred most of the inhabitants. Finally, Constantine, struck with the situation of the place, determined to build a new city by the side of old Byzantium, and which he chose afterward for the capital of his empire. It was called at first Nea Roma, "New Rome," and afterward Constantinopo-The new city was founded in A.D. 328, and in May, A.D. 330, was dedicated to the Virgin Mary. It became the capital of the empire under Constantine, and, on the division of the Roman world into the eastern and western empires, the capital of the former. It was taken by the Turks in 1453. As regards the extent of old Byzantium previous to the time of Constantine, there is some discrepancy of authority; but it appears almost certain that it was much larger than has generally been The common opinion is that its arc corresponded to that of the present seraglio and gardens of the sultan; but it appears to have occupied at least four out of the fourteen regions of the subsequent city of Constantine, namely, the four most easterly ones. The acropolis, or citadel, stood on the hill where the seraglio now is.

The ground on which Constantinople stands is fitted by nature for the site of a great commercial city, the connecting link between Europe and Asia. A gently-sloping promontory, secured by narrow seas, stretches out in a triangular form to-

ward the Asiatic continent, from which its extreme point is separated by so narrow a strait (the Bosporus) that in a quarter of an hour a boat can row from one continent to the other. Just before the Bosporus enters the Sea of Marmara, the classical Propontis, it makes a deep elbow or inlet on the European shore, flowing between the triangle of Constantinople proper and its European suburbs of Galata and Pera, and forming the magnificent port of the "Golden Horn." The triangle, which, allowing for many vacant spaces within the walls, is entirely covered by Constantinople, is thus washed on one side (the northern) by the deep waters of the port, and on the other (the southeast) by the Sea of Marmara. The area of the triangle is occupied by gentle hills. As Rome was built on seven hills, so the Roman founders of Constantinople called these the "Seven hills," though, if the principal chain only were counted, there would be less, and if the minor hills or spaces were included, there would be more than seven. The modern name of Constantinopolis is Stamboul, a corruption from ές τὰν πόλιν, a phrase employed by the Greek peasants in the neighborhood, who, when repairing to Constantinople, say that they are going "to the city."

Proceeding up the Bosporus, we come to, 1. Sycæ, subsequently Justinianæ, a harbor answering to the bay near Pera, one of the suburbs of Constantinople. 2. Portus Muliërum, "the Harbor of the Women," now Balta Liman. 3. Portus Sĕnum, "the Harbor of the Old Men," now Steina. 4. Sinus Caspenes or Bathycolpus, now the Bay of Boiuk-Dere. 5. Phinea or Phinŏpŏlis, near the mouth of the Bosporus, and now Dercus.

On reaching the mouth of the Bosporus, we perceive the Cyaneæ Insulæ, two small, rugged islands, about forty stadia from it, and situate, according to Strabo, one near the European, the other near the Asiatic side, the space between them being twenty stadia. The term Cyaneæ (Kvávea) has reference to the dark blue or azure color of their rocks. There was an ancient fable relative to these islands, namely, that they floated about, and sometimes united to crush to pieces those vessels which might chance at the time to be passing through the straits. The Argo, we are told by Apollonius Rhödius, had a narrow escape in passing through, and lost the extremity of

her stern. Hence to the name Cyanea is frequently joined the term Symplegades ($\Sigma v\mu\pi\lambda\eta\gamma\acute{a}\delta e\varsigma$), i. e., the "Dashers," in allusion to their supposed collision, whenever vessels attempted to pass. Homer calls them $\Pi\lambda a\gamma\kappa\tau at$, or "the Wanderers." The fable relative to the movements of these islands arose probably from their appearing, like all other objects, to move toward or from each other, when seen from a vessel in motion itself. These islands are now called Pavonare.

Returning to the mainland of Thrace, and bending around the Promontorium Paneum, we come to, 1. Phileæ, called by Arrian Phrygia, and in the Peutinger Table Philias, now Philine, having near it a promontory also called Philias. Near this was one of the extremities of the Μακρον Τείχος, or Long Wall, erected to secure the territory of Byzantium from the inroads of the Thracians and other barbarous nations, and the erection of which is ascribed to the Emperor Anastasius. 2. Halmydessus or Salmydessus, to the northwest. The name properly belonged to the entire range of coast from the Thynian Promontory to the mouth of the Bosporus; and it was this portion of the coast in particular that obtained for the Euxine its earlier name of Axenos, or "inhospitable." The shore was rendered dangerous by shallows and marshes, and, when any vessels became entangled among them, the Thracians in the vicinity poured down upon them, plundered their cargoes, and made slaves of the crews. The modern Midjeh answers to the ancient city. 3. Aulai Tichos, a short distance beyond the Thynian Promontory, now Kurudere. 4. Apollonia, to the northwest, a Milesian colony, with a celebrated temple of Apollo, and from which, according to Strabo, Lucullus brought the colossal statue of the god to Rome. This place was called at a later day Sozopŏlis, from which the modern name Sizeboli has come by corruption. 5. Anchialus, to the north, belonging to the territory and under the sway of Apollonia. 6. Mesambria, farther north, called, at an earlier period, Menebria, or "the city of Mena," and now Misseviria. It was also a colony of Miletus.

We have now reached the confines of Lower Masia, a country already described by us (page 246). It only remains, therefore, to notice a few places in the interior of Thrace. 1. Philippöpölis, on the southeast side of the Hebrus, and near the

northwestern angle of Thrace. Its earlier name was Eumolpias and Poneropolis, and, being situate on a mountain with three summits, it received a name also from this, which in the Latin geographers appears as Trimontium. Philip, the father of Alexander, founded the place anew, and called it after himself, Philippopolis. Under the Romans it became the capital of the province of Thrace. The modern name is Filibe or Philipopoli. 2. Hadriānopolis, one of the most important cities of Thrace, on the River Hebrus, where it is joined by the Tonskus, now Tonja, and the Harpessus, now Arda. It was founded by and named after the Emperor Hadrian, and is now Edrene or Adrianople. The site of this city, however, was previously occupied by a small Thracian settlement named Uskudama, and its very advantageous position determined the emperor in favor of erecting a large city on the spot. Adrianople was taken by the Turks in 1360, and continued to be the imperial eity until the fall of Constantinople. 3. Plotinopolis, south of the preceding, founded and named in honor of Plotina, the wife of Trajan. On its site, at a later day, appears the city of Didymotichos. It is now Dsjisr-Erkene. Some, however, make Didymotichos to have been a little to the north, and to answer to the modern Demotica. 4. Trajānopolis, to the south, founded by the Emperor Trajan, and subsequently the capital of the Provincia Rhodopæa. 5. Maximiānopolis, to the west of the preceding. It was called at an earlier period Iamphora and Porsulli. The ruins still exist near the village of Gumer-

Thrace is now the Turkish province of Roumelia.

X. MACEDONIA.

1. Boundaries, &c.

I. Macedonia Proper was bounded on the north by Masia, from which it was separated by the ranges of Orbelus and Scomius; on the east by Thrace, from which it was separated, down to the time of Philip and Alexander, by the River Strymon, and from this period by the Nestus; on the west by Illyricum and Epirus, from which it was separated by the chains of Scardus and Pindus; and on the south by Thessaly, from which it was separated by the Cambunian Mountains.

II. In the time of Herodotus, the name of *Macedonis* comprehended only the country to the south and west of the *Lydias*. How far inland he conceived that it extended, does not appear from his narrative.

III. The boundaries of what was afterward the Roman province of Macedonia are very difficult to determine. According to the Epitomizer of Strabo, it was bounded by the Hadriatic on the west, by the mountain ranges of Scardus, Orbēlus, Rhodope, and Hæmus on the north, by the Via Egnatia on the south, while on the east it extended as far as Cypsěla and the mouth of the Hebrus.

IV. But this statement with respect to the southern boundary of the province of Macedonia can not be correct, since we know that this province was bounded on the south by that of *Achaia*, and it does not appear that the province of Achaia extended farther north than the south of Thessaly.

V. Macedonia now forms part of Turkey in Europe, under the name of Makedonia, or Filiba Vilajeti.

2. HISTORICAL SKETCH.

I. In inquiring into the early history of the Macedonians, two questions, which are frequently confounded, ought to be kept carefully distinct, namely, the origin of the Macedonian people, and that of the Macedonian monarchy under the Temenidæ; for, while there is abundant reason for believing that the Macedonian princes were descended from an Hellenic race, it appears probable that the Macedonians themselves were an Illyrian people, though the country must also have been inhabited in very early times by many Hellenic tribes.

II. The Greeks themselves always regarded the Macedonians as barbarians, that is, as a people not of Hellenic origin; and the similarity of the manners and customs, as well as the languages, as far as they are known, of the early Macedonians and Illyrians, appear to establish the identity of the two nations.

III. According to many ancient writers, Macedonia was anciently called Emathia; but we also find traces of the name Macedonians, from the earliest times, under the ancient forms of Maceta (Μακέται) and Macedoni (Μακεθνοί). They appear to have dwelt originally in the southwestern part of Macedonia, near Mount Pindus. Herodotus says that the Dorians dwelling under Pindus were called Macedonians; and although it may for many reasons be doubted whether the Macedonians had any particular connection with the Dorians, it may be inferred from the statement of Herodotus that the Macedonians once dwelt at the foot of Pindus, whence they emigrated in a northeasterly direction.

IV. The origin of the Macedonian dynasty is a subject of some intricacy and dispute. There is one point, however, on which the ancient authorities agree, namely, that the royal family of that country was of the race of the Temenidæ of Argos. The difference of opinion principally regards the individual of that family to whom the honor of founding this monarchy is to be ascribed. The account of Herodotus seems most worthy of being received. According to this

writer, three brothers, named Gavanes, Æropus, and Perdiccas, descended from Temenus, left Argos, their native place, in quest of fortune, and, arriving in Illyria, passed thence into Upper Macedonia, where, after experiencing some singular adventures, which Herodotus details, they at length succeeded in acquiring possession of a principality, which devolved on Perdiccas, the youngest of the three brothers, and who is therefore considered, by both Herodotus and Thucydides, as the founder of the Macedonian dynasty. These writers have also recorded the names of the successors of this prince, though there is little to interest the reader in their history.

V. Before the time of Philip, father of Alexander, all the country beyond the River Strymon, and even the Macedonian peninsula from Amphipolis to Thessalonica, belonged to Thrace, and Pæonia likewise on the north. Philip conquered this peninsula, and all the country to the River Nestus and Mount Rhodöpe, as also Pæonia and Illyria beyond Lake Lychnītis. Thus the widest limits of Macedonia were from the Ægean Sea to the Ionian, where the Drino formed its boundary. The provinces of Macedonia in the time of Philip amounted to nineteen. Macedonia first became powerful under this monarch, who, taking advantage of the strength of the country, and the warlike disposition of its inhabitants, reduced Greece, which was distracted by intestine broils, in the battle of Chæronea.

VI. His son Alexander subdued Asia, and by an uninterrupted series of victories for ten successive years, made Macedonia, in a short time, the mistress of half the world. After his death this immense empire was divided. Macedonia received anew its ancient limits, and, after several battles, lost its dominion over Greece. The alliance of Philip II. with Carthage, during the second Punic war, gave occasion to this catastrophe. The Romans delayed their revenge for a season, but Philip having laid siege to Athens, the Athenians called the Romans to their aid. The latter declared war against Macedonia, and Philip was compelled to sue for peace, to surrender his vessels, to reduce his army to five hundred men, and defray the expenses of the war.

VII. Perseus, the successor of Philip, having taken up arms against Rome, was totally defeated at Pydna by Paulus Æmilius, and the Romans took possession of the country. Indignant at their oppression, the Macedonian nobility and the whole nation rebelled under Andriscus; but, after a long struggle, they were overcome by Quintus Cæcilius, surnamed, from his conquest, Macedonicus, and the country became a Roman province B.C. 148.

VIII. On the conquest of Macedonia by the Romans, the country was divided into four distinct regions. The first of these comprised all the country between the Rivers Strymon and Nestus, and whatever Perseus held on the left bank of the latter, with the exception of Ænos, Maronēa, and Abdēra. On the right bank of the Strymon the districts of Bisaltia and Heraclēa Sintica were included in this division. The second was formed of the country situated between the Strymon and the Axius, with the addition of ancient Pæonia. The third extended from the latter river to the Penēus. The fourth region reached from Mount Bermius to the confines of Illyricum and Epirus. Amphipolis was made the capital of the first division, Thessalonica of the second, Pella of the third, and Pelagonia of the fourth.

3. MOUNTAINS.

The chief mountain ranges of Macedonia are the following: I. Mons Scardus, separating in part Illyricum from Macedo-

nia, and now called by the Turks and Servians Tchar Dagh.

II. Orbēlus, a prolongation, in fact, of the range of Scardus, and separating in part Macedonia on the north from Upper Masia. Its continuation to the east was called Scŏmius, which also formed part of the northern boundary of Macedonia. The greater portion of the range of Orbelus is at the present day in modern Servia, and is called Argentaro.

III. Pangæus, a ridge forming part of the eastern boundary of Macedonia from the time of Philip and Alexander. It has already been described (page 423).

IV. Rhodope, forming, in a great degree, the eastern boundary of Macedonia, and already described (page 423).

V. Candavii Montes, on the confines of Illyricum, and a branch of the *Canalovii Montes*, which last were between *Illyris Græca* and Macedonia. The modern name is *Crasta*.

VI. Mons Athos, a mountain in the district of Chalcidice, and situate on a peninsula called Acte, between the Sinus Strymonicus, now the Gulf of Contessa, and the Sinus Singiticus, now the Gulf of Monte Santo. Modern travellers give the height as three thousand three hundred and fifty-three feet; the ancient writers, however, in their usual style of exaggera tion, say that the inhabitants of the mountain saw the sun rise three hours before those who lived on the shore at its base They also inform us that, at the summer solstice, it projected its shadow on the market-place of Myrina, the capital city of the island of Lemnos, though at the distance of eighty-seven miles! When Xerxes invaded Greece, he cut a canal through the peninsula of Athos, in order to avoid the danger of doubling the promontory, the fleet of Mardonius having previously sustained a severe loss in passing around it. Athos was fabled to have received its name from a giant, who, in the battle with the gods, hurled it from Thrace to its position in Macedonia. The modern name of the mountain is Monte Santo, an appellation derived from the number of religious houses upon it. The situation is extremely healthy, and the inhabitants are said to be remarkable for their longevity.

VII. OLYMPUS Mons, a celebrated mountain on the coast of Thessaly, forming the limit, when regarded as an entire range, between the latter country and Macedonia. The highest summit in the chain, the one, namely, on the Thessalian coast, and to which the name of Olympus was specially confined by the poets, was fabled to be the residence of the gods. Travellers dwell with admiration on its colossal magnificence, the mountain seeming to rise at once from the sea, and to hide its head amid the clouds. The modern name of Olympus with the Greeks is Elimbo, and with the Turks Semavat Evi. Its rugged outline is broken into many summits, from which circumstance Homer gives it the epithet of πολυδειράς, " of many ridges." It is never completely free from snow, and hence Hesiod characterizes it with the epithet of νιφόεις. An account of the passes in the range of Olympus will be found under the Geography of Thessaly.

VIII. Cambunii Montes, a range forming the southern boundary of Macedonia, and separating it from Thessaly. In this range was the Perrhæbian defile, known more particularly by the name of *Volustana*, now *Volutza*, and not far from *Azō-rus*. The security of this pass appeared so important to Perseus, on the approach of the consul Q. Marcius Philippus, in the third year of the last Macedonian war, that he occupied it with ten thousand men. The ancient name *Cambunii* (Kaμ-δούνια "Ορη) has evidently βουνός, "a hill," as its root.

4. RIVERS.

I. Nestus, the eastern boundary of Macedonia from the time of Philip and Alexander. We have already spoken of it in the geography of Thrace (page 424).

II. Strymon, rising in the chain of Mount Scomius, and forming the earlier boundary of Macedonia on the east. This river has already been mentioned in the geography of Thrace (page 424, seq.).

III. Haliacmon, a large and rapid river, rising in the chain of mountains to which Ptolemy gives the name of Canalovii, and which are properly a continuation of the range of Pindus to the north. It empties into the Sinus Thermaïcus, or Gulf of Saloniki, and is called by the Turks, according to Leake, Injé-Kará-sou. In the time of Herodotus this river was joined

by the *Lydias*, a discharge of the Lake of *Pella*; but a change has now taken place in the course of the latter, which joins, not the Haliacmon, but the *Axius*.

IV. Axius, next to the Strymon the most considerable river of Macedonia. It rises in the chain of Mount Scardus, above Scopi, the modern Scopia, and, after receiving the waters of the Erigonus, Lydias, and Astræus, it falls into the Sinus Thermaïcus. In the Middle Ages this river assumed the name of Bardarus, whence is derived that of Vardari, which it now bears.

5. Gulfs.

1. Sinus Strymonicus, now the Gulf of Contessa, receiving the waters of the River Strymon. 2. Sinus Singiticus, now Gulf of Monte Santo. 3. Sinus Toronaïcus, now Gulf of Cassandhra. 4. Sinus Thermaïcus, now Gulf of Saloniki.

6. PROMONTORIES.

1. Acroathon or Acrothon, the upper extremity of the peninsula of Acte, now Cape Monte Santo. 2. Nymphæum Promontorium, the lower extremity of the same peninsula, now Cape St. George. 3. Ampēlos Promontorium, at the extremity of the peninsula of Sithonia, now Cape Falso. 4. Derrhis Promontorium, at the extremity of the same promontory, and to the southwest of the preceding, now Cape Drepano. 5. Canastræum Promontorium, at the extremity of the peninsula of Pallene, now Cape Canistro, or, as others say, Cape Pagliari. 6. Posidium Promontorium, on the same peninsula, and to the west of the preceding.

7. PRODUCTS.

Ancient Macedonia was a mountainous and woody region, the riches of which consisted chiefly in mines of gold and silver. The coasts, however, produced corn, wine, oil, and fruit. The cold, rugged mountains abounded in timber, kine, and goats, particularly about Ædessa. Modern Macedonia is said to possess a soil more fruitful than the richest plains of Sicily, and there are few districts in the world so fertile as the coasts of Athos or the ancient Chalcădice.

8. Divisions.

The main divisions of Macedonia were the following: 1. Lyncestis or Lyncus; 2. Stymphālia; 3. Orestis; 4. Elimēa or Elimiōtis; 5. Eordæa; 6. Pieria; 7. Bottiæa; 8. Emathia; 9. Mygdōnia; 10. Chalcīdīce; 11. Bisaltia, together with Pæonia and its subdivisions. We will now proceed to consider these subdivisions separately.

1. LYNCUS OR LYNCESTIS.

I. Lyncus, so called by Thucydides and Livy, was situate to the east of the Dassaretii of Illyria, from whose territory it was parted by the chain of Mount Bernas or Bora, while on the north it adjoined Pelagonia and Deuriopus, districts of Pæonia. It was watered by the Erigonus and its tributary streams, and was traversed by the great Egnatian Way.

II. The Lyncestæ were at first an independent people, governed by their own princes, who were said to be descended from the illustrious family of the Bacchiadæ at Corinth. Arrhibæus, one of this line, occupied the throne when Brasidas undertook his expedition into Thrace. At the solicitation of Perdiccas, who was anxious to add the territory of Arrhibæus to his own dominions, Brasidas, in conjunction with a Macedonian force, invaded Lyncus, but was soon compelled to retire by the arrival of a large body of Illyrians, who joined the troops of the Lyncestian prince, and had some difficulty in securing his retreat.

III. Strabo informs us that Irrha, the daughter of Arrhabæus (as he writes the name), was mother of Eurydice, who married Amyntas, the father of Philip. By this marriage it is probable that the principality of Lyncus became annexed to the crown of Macedonia.

IV. Our knowledge of the ancient geography of this part of Macedonia would be very limited, were it not for the information we derive from Livy's history of the first campaign of the Romans in Macedonia, which commenced apparently with the invasion of Lyncestis.

PLACES, &c., IN LYNCESTIS.

On entering this territory from the country of the Dassaretii, the consul Sulpicius encamped on the River Beuus ($Be\tilde{vog}$), doubtless a small stream flowing into the Erigonus, and near it must have stood the town of Beue ($Bev\eta$), mentioned, as well as the river, by Stephanus. Philip and the Macedonian army were stationed on a hill not more than two hundred yards distant from the enemy, near $Ath\tilde{a}cus$, which was probably a town so called. After some skirmishing, the Roman general advanced to Octolophus. Thucydides, before this, in his narrative of the expedition of Brasidas, does not notice any towns, but merely villages belonging to the Lyncestæ. At a later period, however, we hear of one city of importance in their territory, name-

ly, Heraclea, surnamed Lyncestis by Ptolemy, and which we know to have stood on the Egnatian Way both from Polybius, as cited by Strabo, and from the Itineraries. The editor of the French Strabo says its ruins retain the name of Erekli. More than one writer of antiquity has noticed some remarkable acidulous springs in the district of Lyncestis, which were said to inebriate those who drank the water in sufficient quantity. Their locality has been fixed by Brown at Eceisso Verbeni.

2. STYMPHĀLIA.

I. This district, called also *Stymphālis*, was situate in the southwestern angle of the country, and was annexed to Macedonia on the conquest of that country by the Romans.

II. It lay on the borders of Illyricum, Epirus, and Thessaly, and adjoining the territory of the *Atintanes*, who were also annexed to Macedonia by the Romans, with the Chaonians and the Tymphæi of Molossis. This will answer in modern geography to the district of *Konitza*, so called from a flourishing town north of the *Zagora* Mountains, and at no great distance from the source of the *Aous*, where the ancient city of *Gyrtona* may perhaps have stood. This city of *Gyrtona* is mentioned by Ptolemy, but by no other author, and must not be confounded with the Thessalian *Gyrton*.

3. ORESTIS.

The Oresta were situated apparently to the southeast of the Lyncestæ, and, like them, were originally independent of the Macedonian kings, though afterward annexed to their dominions. From their vicinity to Epirus, we find them frequently connected with that country; indeed, Stephanus terms them a Molossian tribe. At a late period they became subject to the last Philip of Macedon, but, having revolted under the protection of a Roman force, they were declared free on the conclusion of peace between Philip and the Romans.

PLACES IN ORESTIS.

The country of the Orestæ was apparently of small extent, and contained but few towns. Leake makes it to have extended from the crest of the ridge of Pindus to the mountains beyond the valleys of Kastoria and Mavrovo, and to have comprehended the modern districts of Gramista, Anaselitza, and Kastoria. We may notice, 1. Orestia, fabled to have been founded by Orestes, and the chief town of the race. Leake supposes it to have been situated at the foot of Mount Grammos, a part of the great central ridge in what is now the plain of Anaselitza, and the most central and fertile part of the country. Stephanus says it was the birth-place of Ptolemy, the son of Lagus. Arrian, however, makes him to have been an Eordæan. According to Leake, we must seek for the site of Orestia near

the issue of the Haliacmon into the plain of Anaselitza. 2. Celĕtrum, said by Livy to have been situated in a peninsula, and
to have had its walls surrounded by a lake, to which there was
but one approach from the main land by a narrow path. These
particulars serve to identify it exactly with the modern Kastoria, on a peninsula in the lake of the same name.

4. ELIMĒA.

This district lay to the southeast of Orestis, and comprehended, according to Leake, the modern districts of *Grevena*, *Venja*, and *Tjersemba*. It was at one time independent, but was afterward conquered by the kings of Macedonia, and finally included by the Romans in the fourth division of that province. Though a mountainous and barren tract, it must have been a very important acquisition to the kings of Macedonia, from its situation with regard to Epirus and Thessaly, there being several passages leading directly into those provinces from Elimea. The *Cambunii Montes* separated Elimea from Thessaly.

PLACES IN ELIMEA.

1. Elimēa or Elimēum, the capital of the district, on the River Haliacmon, and not far from the modern Greuno. Tradition made it to have been founded by Elymas, a Tyrrhenian chief. Ptolemy calls it Elyma. Livy probably alludes to this place, in his account of the expedition undertaken by Perseus against Stratus, when that prince assembled his forces and reviewed them at Elymea. 2. Eāne, another town of Tyrrhenian origin, founded, as was said, by Æanus, the son of Elymas, king of that nation. It is supposed to have been situated in the vicinity of Elimea. Some traces of the name seem to be preserved in that of Vanitches, which is a little to the east of Greuno.

5. EORDÆA.

This district lay to the northeast of Orestis, and, according to Leake, comprehended the modern Budja, Sarighiul, and Ostrovo. Thucydides reports that the Eordæi were dispossessed by the Macedonians of their original settlements, which, however, still continued to be called Eordæa, and he farther states that a small remnant of this ancient race had established itself near Physca, which was apparently a town of Mygdonia. There is in Stephanus a curious quotation relative to this people, which would be very important in proving that the population of Greece was principally derived from the north, could we rely on the authority of the writer whom Stephanus quotes, an historian named Suidas. This individual asserts that the Centauri and Leleges were at an early period called Eordi.

PLACES IN EORDEA.

1. Cellæ, on the Egnatian Way, to the southwest of Edessa,
F F

from which, according to the Itineraries, it was twenty-eight miles distant. It is mentioned by Hierocles as a town of *Macedonia Consularis*. We may place its site not far from the present *Khan* of *Kirpini*, near the defile which anciently connected Macedonia with the territory of Arrhibæus. 2. *Arnissa*, a short distance to the east of the preceding. According to Leake, it was situate in what is now the vale of *Ostrovo*, and possibly may have been the same place as the *Barnus* of Polybius.

6. PIERIA.

I. This district lay to the east and southeast of Eordæa and Elimea, and is one of the most interesting parts of Macedonia, both in consideration of the traditions to which it has given birth, as being the first seat of the Muses, and the birth-place of Orpheus, and also of the important events which occurred there at a later period, involving the destiny of the Macedonian empire and many other parts of Greece.

II. The name of Pieria was known to Homer, and was derived from the *Pieres*. These Pieres, having been pressed by the early Macedonian princes, crossed the River Strymon, in part at least, and settled in Thrace, where Herodotus mentions the castles of the Pierians in his account of the expedition of Xerxes, and where we have already noticed them in the geography of Thrace. It is customary to call the Pieres a Thracian race, but this is manifestly erroneous, since they have nothing in common with the semi-barbarous communities of Thrace proper, namely, the Edones, Odrysæ, and Odomanti of the historical ages. They appear to have obtained the appellation of Thracians merely from the accidental circumstance of their having settled in Thrace.

III. Hence, when we read in the accounts which have come down to us respecting the earliest minstrels of Greece, such as Eumolpus, Orpheus, Musæus, and Thamyris, that they were *Thracians*, we must understand by this merely that they were *Picrians*. These Picrians, moreover, from the intellectual relations which they maintained with the Greeks, appear to have been a Grecian race; and this supposition is confirmed by the Greek names of their places, rivers, fountains, &c. We find them, also, up to the time of the Æolic and Doric migrations, living in certain districts of Bæotia and Phocis, that is, around Helicon and Parnassus, and their name is thus intimately connected with the poetical history of Greece

IV. The boundaries which historians and geographers have assigned to this province vary considerably. It will be safest, however, to adhere to the arrangement of Ptolemy, who gives the name of Pieria to all the country between the mouth of the Peneus and that of the Lydias. The natural boundary of Pieria toward Perrhæbia, the contiguous district of Thessaly to the west, was the great chain of Olympus, which, beginning from the Peneus, closely follows the coast of Pieria till beyond Dium, where it strikes off in a northwestern direction toward the interior of Macedonia.

PLACES IN PIERIA.

Beginning from the mouth of the Peneus, the first Macedonian town is *Phila*, situate apparently near the sea, at no great

distance from Tempe. It was occupied by the Romans when their army had penetrated into Pieria by the passes of Olympus from Thessaly. This place was built, as Stephanus informs us, by Demetrius, son of Antigonus Gonatas, who named it after his mother Phila. The ruins of this city are, according to Cramer, probably those which Dr. Clarke observed near Platamona, and which he regarded as the remains of Heraclea. Leake, however, adopts the opinion of Clarke. We come next to, 2. Heraclea or Heracleum, five miles beyond Phila, and half way between Dium and Tempe. Cramer makes it answer to the modern Litochori, but Clarke and Leake agree in identifying it with *Platamona*, as already remarked. Livy informs us that it was built on a rock overhanging a river. Heraclea was taken in a remarkable manner by the Romans in the war with Perseus, as related by Livy. Having assailed the walls under cover of the manœuvre called testudo, they succeeded so well with the lower fortifications, that they were induced to employ the same means against the loftier and more difficult works; raising, therefore, the testudo to an elevation which overtopped the walls, the Romans drove the garrison from the ramparts, and captured the place. A little distance beyond Heraclea was the River Enipeus, rising in Mount Olympus, and, though nearly dry in summer, yet in winter rendered a considerable torrent by the heavy rains. The modern name, according to Dr. Clarke, is Malathria.

3. Dium, five miles beyond, one of the principal cities of Macedonia, and, though not large, the great bulwark of its maritime frontier to the south. It was noted for its splendid buildings and the multitude of its statues. Here were deposited twenty-five of the works of Lysippus, representing the Etalpou, or peers of Alexander, who fell at the battle of the Granicus. It suffered severely, however, during the Social War, from an incursion of the Ætolians, who levelled to the ground the walls, houses, and gymnasium, destroying the porches around the temple with the offerings, and all the royal statues. The Macedonians, however, soon retaliated on the Ætolian capital. In the war with Perseus, Dium seems to have thoroughly recovered from this disaster, and, by the importance of its situation, it became at length a Roman colony. D'Anville and Cramer fix the site of Dium on a spot now called

Standia; Clarke, however, and Leake are in favor of the plain of Katerina. Dium is one among numerous instances of ancient cities of opulence and celebrity situated in the most unhealthy spots. It lay about one mile from the sea, and half of this space was occupied by marshes formed by the mouth of the River Baphyrus, now, according to Clarke, the Mauro Nero, but, according to others, the Sphetili.

4. Libethra or Libethrium, between Dium and Heraclea, and near a torrent named Sus. Pausanias reports a tradition that this town was once destroyed, together with all its inhabitants, by an inundation of this torrent, and that, on the preceding day, the tomb of Orpheus, which was near Libethra, had been injured by another accident, which exposed the poet's bones to light. His remains were removed by the people of Dium to a spot twenty stadia distant from their city toward Olympus, where they erected a monument to him. Leake thinks that the Sus is the same river with the Enipeus, and that Libethra was situated not far from its junction with the sea. Cramer places Libethra to the southwest of Dium. The name of Libethrus was given to the summit of Olympus, which stood above the town. Hence the Muses were surnamed Libethrides as well as Pierides. 5. Pimplea, not far from the preceding, and the birth-place of Orpheus. Cramer places it to the northeast of Libethra. Leake fixes its site at the modern Litochoro. From this place the Muses were called *Pimplēides*. 6. Pydna, to the north of Dium, following the coast, and celebrated for the decisive victory gained by Paulus Æmilius over the Macedonian army under Perseus, which put an end to that ancient empire. Pydna, before this, had been a cause of dispute between Philip, father of Alexander, and the Athenians, and that monarch eventually took it from them and gave it to Olynthus. Here, also, at a later period, Olympias, the mother of Alexander, was besieged by Cassander, and having been compelled at length to surrender, from the want of provisions, she was thrown into prison, and soon after put to death. Leake places Pydna at the modern Ayan. Beyond Pydna was a considerable forest named Pieria, which probably furnished the Pierian pitch alluded to by Herodotus (iv., 195).

7. Methone, about forty stadia north of Pydna, according to the epitomist of Strabo. This place is celebrated in history

from the circumstance of Philip's having lost an eye in besieging it. It was a Greek colony, and was settled by a party of Eretrians. There was another Methone in Thessaly, which must not be confounded with the Macedonian city. Leake fixes the site of the latter at *Eleutherochori*.

The interior of Pieria is little known to us, and even this little is so unsatisfactory that we pass at once to

7. BOTTIÆA.

I. The name of *Bottica*, or *Bottica*s, was anciently given to a narrow space of country situated between the Haliacmon and Lydias, as Herodotus informs us (vii., 127), though in another passage he extends it beyond the Lydias as far as the Axius.

II. The Bottiai, however, had been early expelled from this district by the Macedonian princes, and had retired to the other side of the Axius, about Therme and Olynthus, where they formed a new settlement with the Chalcidians, another people of Thracian origin, occupying the country of Chalcidice, and along with them were engaged in hostilities with the Athenians, who held Potidæa during the Peloponnesian war.

PLACES IN BOTTLEA.

1. The first town on the coast, after crossing the River Haliacmon, is Alorus, seventy stadia from Methone, according to the epitomizer of Strabo. It appears to have stood not far from Kapsochori, the position of which is opposite to the innermost part of the Sinus Thermaicus. 2. Ichnæ, placed by Herodotus in Bottiæa, and which, perhaps, stood near the mouth of the Lydias. The name was sometimes written Achnæ. 3. Pella, at the distance of one hundred and twenty stadia from the mouth of the Lydias, in the interior. Herodotus assigns it to Bottiæa, but Ptolemy to Emathia. We are told by Demosthenes that Pella was but a small and insignificant place before it became the birth-place of Philip. This monarch appears to have enlarged and embellished it, as did also his son Alexander, who was likewise born here. From this time it continued the residence of the kings of Macedonia, the earlier capital having been Ægæ or Edessa. Stephanus reports that the more ancient appellation was Bunomus or Bunomeia, which it exchanged for the name of its founder Pellas. It was situate near a lake of considerable size, the outlet of which was the River Lydias, now the Karasmak or Mauroneri. Into this lake D'Anville and Cramer make a river to flow, named the Æstræus, the modern name of which they give as the Vistritza;

Leake, however, gives Moglenitiko as the appellation employed by the modern Greeks, and makes its ancient name to have been the Lydias, so that, according to him, the River Lydias flowed into, or rather formed the lake, and then emerged from it at the lower extremity. The baths of Pella are spoken of by the ancient writers, but are said to have been injurious to health, producing biliary complaints. The ruins of Pella are yet visible on the spot called Palatisa or Alaklisi.

8. EMĂTHĬA.

I. Emăthia was the most ancient name applied to Macedonia by the Greek writers, and appears originally to have meant merely the territory around Ega or Edessa, between the Lydias and Haliaemon. It was to this Emathia, according to the tradition mentioned by Pausanias and other writers, that Perdiccas, the founder of the Macedonian dynasty, came from Argos, and obtained possession of the city of Ega or Edessa, the capital of the district, at that time ruled over by Midas, where he established his empire.

II. At a later period, Emathia was the name given to the district lying north of *Bottiaa* and south of *Pelagonia*, and having the *Axius* during a part of its course as its eastern boundary. It is in this sense we shall here consider the term.

PLACES IN EMATHIA.

1. Ægæ or Edessa, the early capital of Emathia, and subsequently the chief city of the Macedonian dynasty, until the seat of government was transferred to Pella. Even after this event it remained the place of sepulture for the royal family, since we are told that Philip and Eurydice, the king and queen of Macedonia, who had been put to death by Olympias, were buried here by Cassander. Pausanias states that Alexander was to have been interred here. It was at Ægæ, moreover, that Philip was assassinated by Pausanias, while celebrating the marriage of his daughter Cleopatra with Alexander, king of Epirus. It is uncertain which of the two appellations, Ægæ or Edessa, is the more ancient. The Greek writers often call the place by the latter name. It is generally agreed that the modern Vodina answers to this ancient city. Leake speaks of the surrounding mountain scenery as affording a remarkable combination of sublimity and beauty. He also remarks that the site is well adapted for an ancient capital by its lofty, salubrious, and strong position at the entrance of a pass which was the most important in the kingdom, as leading from the maritime provinces into Upper Macedonia, and by another branch of

the same pass into Lyncestis and Pelagonia. Such a situation would have been ill exchanged for the marshes of Pella, had not the increasing power and civilization of the Macedonians rendered maritime communication of more importance to their capital than strength of position, while in the winter Pella had the recommendation of a much milder climate.

- 2. Miēza, to the northeast of the preceding, and deriving its name, according to Theagenes, as quoted by Stephanus, from Mieza, granddaughter of Macedon. He also states that it was called, at an earlier period, Strymonium. Alexander, in consequence of the destruction of Stagira, is said to have established a school for the exiled Stagirites at Mieza, in honor of Aristotle. Cramer thinks that we should look for its site near the modern Cailari or Sarigeul. 3. Cyrius, the same, probably, with the Cyrrhus of Thucydides, and corresponding, probably, to a Palæo Castro, about sixteen miles northwest of Pella. Idomene, to the north of the preceding, and on the borders of Pæonia, according to Thucydides. The Theodosian Table places it on a road leading from Stobi to Thessalonica. It was situate near the Axius. The modern name is given by some as Idomeni. 5. Gortynia, to the west of the preceding, according to Cramer's map; Ptolemy, however, places it to the south, writing the name Gordynia, while Leake places it on the right bank of the Axius.
- 6. Beræa or Berrhæa, in the southernmost part of Emathia, and lying in a southwest direction from Pella. It was a city of great antiquity, and is often mentioned by the early writers. It was thirty miles from Pella, thirty-five from Dium, and fifty-one from Thessalonica. Its situation answers to that of the modern Kara Veria. Some interesting circumstances respecting Beræa are to be found in the Acts of the Apostles (xvii., 11). The Epitome of Strabo states that Beræa stood at the foot of Mount Bermius. This mountain, according to Herodotus, was inaccessible on account of the cold. Beyond it were the gardens of Midas, in which roses bloomed spontaneously, each flower having sixty leaves, and surpassing in fragrance every other sort. Mount Bermius appears to be a continuation of the great range of Olympus. The modern name is Xero Livado.

9. MYGDONIA.

I. This province of Macedonia appears to have extended from the Axius to the Lake Bolbe, and at one period even to the Strymon. It originally belonged to the Edonians, a people of Thrace; but these were expelled by the Temenidæ.

II. Under the division of Mygdonia we must include several minor districts, enumerated by different historians and geographers. These are Amphaxītis and Paraxia, Anthēmus, and Grestonia or Crestonia. Amphaxitis, as its name sufficiently indicates, was situated near the River Axius, and on the left bank of that river, since the Epitome of Strabo states that the Axius separated Bottiæa from Amphaxitis.

PLACES IN MYGDONIA. 1. AMPHAXITIS.

1. Amydon or Abydon, mentioned by Juvenal. Near it rose a fountain named $\mathcal{Z}a$, which mingled its waters with those of the neighboring Axius. 2. Chalastra, at the mouth of the Axius, mentioned by Herodotus in his account of the expedition of Xerxes. Cassander removed its inhabitants to Thessalonica. 3. Sindus, to the northeast, near the mouth of the River Echedorus, now the Gallico. 4. Thessalonica, to the east of the preceding, and at the head of the Sinus Thermaïcus, or Gulf of Salonichi. Thessalonica was at first an inconsiderable place under the name of Therma, by which it was known in the times of Herodotus, Thucydides, Æschines, and Scylax, and, as such, it gave name to the Sinus Thermaicus just mentioned. Cassander changed the name to Thessalonica, in honor of his wife, who was daughter of Philip. Cassander is said to have collected together the inhabitants of several neighboring towns for the aggrandizement of the new city, which thus became one of the most important and flourishing ports of northern Greece. It surrendered to the Romans after the battle of Pydna, and was made the capital of the second region of Macedonia. Situated on the great Egnatian Way, and possessed of an excellent harbor, well placed for commercial intercourse with the Hellespont and Asia Minor, it could not fail of becoming a very populous and flourishing city. The Christian will dwell with peculiar interest on the circumstances which connect the history of Thessalonica with the name of St. Paul. It will be seen from the epistles which he addressed to his converts there, how successful his exertions had been, notwithstanding the opposition and enmity of his misguided countrymen. The modern town of Salonichi represents the ancient city.

2. PARAXIA.

The Alexandrian geographer assigns to this district the towns of Chata, Moryllus, and Antigonia. The second of these is noticed by Pliny. Antigonia was surnamed Psaphara, to distinguish it from another Antigonia in the vicinity of Stobi. Leake thinks that Chata, Moryllus, and Antigonia Psaphara were situate on the Sinus Thermaïcus, between Thessalonica and the promontory of Enëum.

3. ANTHEMUS.

The territory of Anthemus was probably to the northeast of Thessalonica. There was also a town of the same name, which Amyntas, king of Macedonia, offered as a residence to Hippias, son of Pisistratus. It was ceded by Philip to Olynthus, together with Potidea. The ruins of Anthemus are supposed to lie in the vicinity of Langaza and its lake. The ancient Bolbe Palus is no doubt that of Besikia or Betchik at the present day, and which is more to the east than that of Langaza. According to Thucydides, this lake emptied its waters into the sea near Aulon and Bormiscus, both belonging to Chalcidice. Stephanus mentions a town as well as a lake named Bolbe. Clarke makes the Lake of Betchik (or, as he writes it, Beskek) to be about twelve miles long, and six or eight broad.

4. CRESTONIA.

Crestonia or Grestonia was chiefly occupied, as we learn from Herodotus, by a remnant of Pelasgi, who spoke a different language from their neighbors. He also states that the River Echedōrus took its rise in the Crestonian country, and farther remarks that the camels of the Persian army were attacked by lions in this quarter, which animals, according to him, were to be found in Europe only between the Nestus, the Thracian River, and the Achelous. Thucydides also mentions the Crestonians as a peculiar race, part of whom had fixed themselves near Mount Athos. This district is now known by the name of Caradagh.

10. CHALCIDĬCĒ.

I. To the south and east of Mygdonia was the country of Chalcidicē, so named from the Chalcidians, a people of Eubœan origin, who appear to have formed settlements in this part of Macedonia at an early period. Thucydides always terms them the Chalcidians of Thrace, to distinguish them apparently from the Chalcidians of Eubœa. At the instigation of Perdiccas, king of Macedonia, the Chalcidians, having entered into a league with the Bottiæi, made war upon the Athenians, who held Potidæa and several towns in their vicinity, and they proved victorious in more than one engagement. We also learn from Thucydides that Brasidas was mainly indebted to their co-operation for his first successes. It is certain that the expedition of this enterprising commander was in the end productive of the most beneficial results to the Chalcidic towns, since it finally secured their independence, and greatly promoted the prosperity to which these republics, and especially Olynthus, attained before they were annexed to Macedonia by the arms of Philip.

II. The whole of Chalcidice may be considered as forming one great peninsula, confined between the Sinus Thermaicus, or Gulf of Salonichi, and the Sinus Strymonicus, or Gulf of Contessa. But it also comprised within itself three smaller peninsulas, separated from each other by so many inlets of the sea. These we shall take in the order in which they present themselves.

PLACES IN CHALCIDICE.

1. Ænēa, situate on the eastern shore of the Sinus Thermaïcus, and opposite to Pydna, on the other side of the gulf. It was fabled to have been founded by Æneas on his departure from Troy, and, according to Livy, sacrifices were annually performed here to that hero. It was much reduced in population and importance when Cassander founded Thessalonica. This place was given up to plunder by Paulus Æmilius, after the battle of Pydna, in consequence of the resistance which had been offered by it to the Roman arms. Its ruins are visible near the small town of Panomi. In the immediate vicinity is the promontory of Eneum, now Cape Panomi. The headland some distance to the north was the Hegonium Promontorium, now Cape Cara Bourun. Beyond Æneia, Herodotus names, 2. Smila; 3. Campsa; 4. Gigonus. This last-mentioned town is also spoken of by Thucydides, who states that an Athenian force, which had been employed against Perdiccas, arrived there from Berrhea in three days, on their way to attack Potidæa. 5. Combrea, mentioned by Herodotus in his account of the expedition of Xerxes. 6. Antigonia. what inland, and north of Combrea.

We now reach the southwesternmost of the three smaller peninsulas already referred to, namely, that of Pallene, of which frequent mention occurs in the historians of Greece. It is said to have anciently borne the name of Phlegra, and was fabled to have witnessed the conflict between the gods and the earth-born Titans. The peninsula is connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus of little more than two miles in breadth, on which anciently stood, 7. The rich and flourishing city of Potidæa, founded by the Corinthians, though at what period is uncertain. It must, however, have existed some time before the Persian war, as we know from Herodotus that it sent troops to Platææ, having already surrendered to the Persians on their march into Greece. But after the battle of Salamis it closed its gates against the Persian forces. At a subsequent period it appears to have fallen under the power of the Athenians, as it was then termed a tributary city. We learn from Thucydides that the harsh conduct of Athens toward the Potidæans, who were naturally inclined to the Dorian interest,

compelled them to revolt. They were finally subdued, however, and were allowed to leave the city, which was afterward recolonized from Athens. It was subsequently seized upon by Philip of Macedon. 7. Cassandrēa. When Cassander ascended the throne, he founded a new city on the neck of the peninsula of Pallene, which he called after his own name, Cassandrēa (Κασσάνδρεια, scil. πόλις), or "City of Cassander." Thither he transferred the inhabitants of several neighboring towns, and, among others, those of Potidea and the remnant of the population of Olynthus. Cassandrea is said to have surpassed all the Macedonian cities in opulence and splendor. Philip, son of Demetrius, made it his principal naval arsenal, and at one time caused a hundred galleys to be constructed in its docks. Procopius we learn that this city at length fell a prey to the Huns, who left scarcely a vestige of it remaining. mus on which this city stood is now, according to Leake, called the Gate of Kassandhra, as being the entrance into the peninsula of Pallene, the whole of which is known by the name of Kassandhra.

Among the other towns of Pallene may be named the following: 1. Aphytis, south of Potidea, and containing a celebrated temple of Bacchus, to which Agesipolis, king of Sparta, who commanded the troops before Olynthus, desired to be removed shortly before his death, and near which he breathed his last. According to Plutarch, there was here an oracle of Jupiter Ammon. 2. Mende, to the south of the preceding, and a colony of Eretria in Eubœa. It became subject to Athens together with Potidæa and other towns of Pallene and Chalcidice; revolted on the arrival of Brasidas, but was retaken by Nicias and Nicostratus. 3. Scione, on the opposite side of the peninsula, and to the northeast of the preceding. It was said to have been founded by some Pellenians of Achaia, who had wandered thither on their return from Troy. Having revolted from Athens, it was besieged and taken by Cleon, who, by order of the Athenians, put to death all the men, and reduced the women and children to slavery.

Leaving the peninsula of *Pallene*, we come to the head of the gulf which separates *Pallene* from *Sithonia*, and there find the celebrated and powerful city of *Olynthus*, founded probably by the Chalcidians and Eretrians of Eubea. The republic of Olynthus gradually acquired so much power and importance among the northern states of Greece, that it roused the jealousy and excited the alarm of the more powerful of the southern republics, Athens and Lacedæmon. This brought on eventually a war between the states of Peloponnesus and this city, in which an army of ten thousand men was dispatched into Thrace, under the command of Teleutias, brother of Agesilaus. leutias was defeated and slain. Agesipolis, one of the Spartan kings, succeeded him in the conduct of the war, but was seized with a disorder which proved fatal. Polybiades, his successor, ended the war by compelling Olynthus to sue for peace, which was granted on condition of its acknowledging its dependence on Sparta, and taking part in all its wars. At a subsequent period, we find this city again powerful and independent, and engaged in hostilities with Athens and Philip son of Amyntas. It was only a feeling of jealousy between these two powers that saved Olynthus from being worsted. Shortly after, we find Philip and the Olynthians in league against Athens, with the view of expelling that power from Thrace. Amphipolis was besieged and taken by assault. Potidæa surrendered and was restored to Olynthus, which for a time became as flourishing and powerful as at any former period of its history. Of the circumstances which induced this republic to abandon the interests of Macedon in favor of Athens, we are not well informed: but the machinations of the party hostile to Philip led to a declaration of war against that monarch, and the Athenians were easily prevailed upon by the eloquence of Demosthenes to send forces to the aid of Olynthus. The city, however, was compelled eventually to surrender to Philip, who gave it up to plunder, reduced the inhabitants to slavery, and razed the walls to the ground. Its ruins are now called Agios Mamas.

We come next to the second of the three smaller peninsulas, namely, Sithonia, a name applied also to the territory in which Olynthus was situated. The Sithonians are mentioned by more than one writer as a people of Thrace. The more important places in this peninsula are the following: 1. Sermyle, to the southeast of Olynthus. From Thucydides we learn that it was in the hands of the Athenians at the time of the Peloponnesian war. The latest mention of it is to be found in the Byzantine historians. 2. Galepsus, mentioned as a Greek city

by Herodotus. 3. Torōne, giving name to the gulf on which it stood, Sinus Toronaïcus, or Gulf of Kassandhra. It was situated toward the southern extremity of the peninsula, and was probably founded by the Eubœans. Near Torone was a marsh, in which the Egyptian bean grew naturally. The modern Toron marks the site of the ancient place. The harbor of Torone was called $C\bar{o}phos$ ($K\omega\phi\delta\varsigma$), from the circumstance of the noise of the waves being never heard there. Hence the proverb, " $K\omega\phi\delta\tau\epsilon\rho\sigma\varsigma$ $\tau\sigma\tilde{v}$ $To\rho\omega\nua\acute{v}o\nu$ $\lambda\iota\mu\acute{v}\sigma\varsigma$."

The third peninsula is that in which Mount Athos rises, and it forms the eastern side of the Singiticus Sinus, now the Gulf of Monte Santo. It is called Acte by Thucydides; and it was inhabited in his time by various nations of Thracian and Pelasgian origin. Mount Athos, which forms so imposing a feature in this peninsula, has already been described. Its modern name, as before remarked, is Monte Santo, from the number of religious houses upon it. Among the towns in this peninsula worthy of mention, the following may be noted: 1. Sane, on the neck connecting this peninsula with the mainland, and on the shore of the Sinus Singiticus. According to Thucydides, it was a colony of Andros. Here began, as we learn from Herodotus, the celebrated canal, cut by order of Xerxes for his immense armament. It is well known that the disaster which the fleet of Mardonius sustained in attempting to double the promontories of Athos first suggested this vast enterprise to the Persian monarch. Herodotus says that three years were employed in its excavation, its breadth being sufficient to allow of two galleys rowing abreast, while its length amounted to a mile and a half. Juvenal ranks this undertaking with the other fables to which the expedition of Xerxes gave rise; the existence of the canal, however, is too well attested by Herodotus and subsequent writers to be regarded as a subject of doubt, and, notwithstanding the assertions of some travellers, it is now ascertained that considerable remains of this work are still visible.

2. Urănopolis, northeast of Sane, founded by Alexander, brother of Cassander, and now Callitzi. 3. Dium, to the southeast of the preceding. 4. Olophyxus, to the southeast. 5. Acrothoos or Acrothoum, situated high up on the mountain, as its name implies; and the inhabitants of which were supposed to

live beyond the usual time allotted to man. This town was said to have been swallowed up by an earthquake on account of the impiety of its inhabitants, and the town of Apollonia, called also Macrobia, appears to have succeeded to it. 6. Acanthus, on the other side of the isthmus from Sane, and at the extremity of the canal of Xerxes. It was at one time a flourishing city, and was colonized, like Sane, from the island of Andros. The geographers of antiquity do not agree entirely as to the position assigned to this city. Strabo, or, rather, his epitomizer, places it on the Singiticus Sinus; but Herodotus distinctly fixes it on the Strymonicus Sinus, and so also does Scymnus. Ptolemy follows Strabo; but the error of these two writers may perhaps have arisen from the territory of Acanthus having stretched for a considerable distance along the shore of the Singitic as well as the Strymonic Gulf. It is probable that the spot now called Erissos answers to the site of the ancient Acanthus.

7. Calarna, or Turris Calarnea, to the northwest, and in the main district of Chalcidice. 8. Stagīra or Stagīrus, to the northwest of the preceding, a colony of Andros, as we learn from Thucydides, and celebrated as the birth-place of Aristotle, who hence derived his appellation of "the Stagirite." trace of the ancient name is apparent in that of Stauros. harbor of Stagira was called Capros, as well as the small island which lay off from it. 9. Arethusa, nearly due west from the preceding, and celebrated in antiquity as containing the remains of Euripides. Other accounts place the tragedian's tomb at Bromiscus, another town of Macedonia; but it is easy to reconcile this discrepancy, as Bromiscus was situated in the immediate vicinity of Arethusa. 10. Apollonia, in the interior of Chalcidice, a town of some note, and situate on the Egnatian Way. Mention is made of it in the Acts of the Apostles (xvii., 1), St. Paul having passed through it on his way from Philippi to Thessalonica. Its ruins are said still to retain the name of Pollina.

11. BISALTIA.

I. That part of Macedonia between the Lake Bolbe and the Strymon appears to have been anciently called Bisaltia, from the Bisalta, a Thracian nation who were governed by a king at the time of the invasion of Xerxes. Herodotus relates that this sovereign caused his own sons to be deprived of sight for having disobeyed his orders in joining the Persian army, he himself having re-

tired to the wilds of Mount Rhodope. We find from Thucydides that Bisaltia not long after fell into the hands of the kings of Macedon (ii., 99), but that a small part of the nation remained in the peninsula of Mount Athos.

II. The only place deserving of mention in this district is Argilus, on the coast, beyond Bromiscus, and the outlet of the Lake of Bolbe. According to Thucydides, it was a colony of Andros. It seems from Herodotus to have been a little to the right of the route of the army of Xerxes in marching from the Strymon to Acanthus, and its territory extended as far as the right bank of the Strymon, for Cerdylium, the mountain immediately opposite to Amphipolis, was in the territory of Argilus.

12. PÆÖNIA.

I. The Pačnians were a numerous and ancient nation, who once occupied the greater part of Macedonia, and even a considerable portion of what is more properly called Thrace, extending along the coast of the Ægean as far as the Euxine. This we collect from Herodotus's account of the wars of that people with the Perinthians, a Greek colony settled on the shores of the Propontis, at no great distance from Byzantium.

II. Homer, who was apparently well acquainted with the Pæonians, represents them as following their leader Asteropæus to the siege of Troy in behalf of Priam, and places them in Macedonia, on the banks of the Axius. We know, also, from Livy, that Emathia once bore the name of Pæonia, though at what period we can not ascertain (xl., 3).

III. Herodotus, who dwells principally on the history of the Pæonians around the Strymon, informs us that they were divided into numerous small tribes, most of which were transplanted into Asia by Megabyzus, a Persian general, who had made the conquest of their country by order of Darius. It appears, however, from the same historian, that these Pæonians afterward effected their escape from the Persian dominions, and returned to their own country. Herodotus seems to place the main body of the Pæonian nation near the Strymon, but Thucydides, with Homer, extends their territory to the Axius. If, however, we follow Strabo and Livy, we shall be disposed to remove the western limits of the nation as far as the great chain of Mount Scardus and the borders of Illyria.

IV. In general terms, then, we may affirm, that the whole of northern Macedonia, from the source of the River $Erig\check{o}nus$, which rose in the chain of Mount Scardus, to the Strymon, was once named $P\check{a}\check{o}nia$. This large tract of country was divided into two parts by the Romans, and formed the second and third regions of Macedonia.

V. The Pæonians, though constituting but one nation, were divided into several tribes, each probably governed by a separate chief. We hear, however, of a king of Pæonia named Autoleon, who is said to have derived assistance from Cassander against the Autariatæ, an Illyrian horde, who had invaded his country. Among the tribes of Pæonia, the most deserving of mention are the following:

1. PELAGONES.

I. The *Pelagones*, though not mentioned by Homer as a distinct people, were probably known to him, from his naming Pelagon, the father of Asteropæus, a Pæonian warrior. They must at one period have been widely spread over the north of Greece, since a district of upper Thessaly bore the name, as we shall see, of *Pelagonia Tripolitis*. Frequent allusion is made to *Pelagonia by Livy*, in his account of the wars between the Romans and the kings of Macedon. It was

exposed to invasions from the Dardani, who bordered on its northern frontiers; for which reason, the communication between the two countries was carefully guarded by the Macedonian monarchs.

II. The only places deserving of mention in Pelagonia are, 1. Pelagonia, the capital of the fourth division of Roman Macedonia. It appears to have been a considerable place, and is noticed by the Byzantine historian Malchus, who speaks of the strength of its citadel. Cramer, on his map, places it near the sources of the Beuus, on the confines of Illyricum, at the foot of Mount Bernus, or Bora, and makes it correspond to the modern Monastir, or Toli. Leake writes the latter of these modern names Bitolia, and makes Pelagonia the designation of the Greek metropolitan bishopric, of which Bitolia is the see. 2. Stöbi, not far from the junction of the Erigonus and Axius. On the conquest of Macedonia by the Romans, it was made the depôt of the salt with which the Dardani were supplied from that country. Stobi, at a later period, became not only a Roman colony, but a Roman municipium, a privilege rarely conferred beyond the limits of Italy. In the reign of Constantine, it was considered as the chief town of Macedonia Secunda, or Salutāris, as it was then called. It was the birth-place of John Stobæus, the compiler of the Greek Anthology which bears his name. The site of this place has not been ascertained in modern times.

2. ALMÖPES.

PTOLEMY places them near the source of the Erigonus, on the borders of Illyria. Thucydides speaks of this tribe as one of the original Macedonian tribes before the conquest of that country by the Temenidæ. Lycophron designates Macedonia by the name of Almopia. Strabo ascribes three towns to this tribe, namely, Horma, Apsălus, and Eurōpus, respecting which all other writers are silent.

3. AGRIANES.

I. The Pæonian Agrianes were apparently a considerable tribe in point of territory and population. Their geographical position is also better ascertained than that of those already mentioned, from the fact noticed by Strabo, that the Strymon had its source in their country. In the time of Alexander, the Agrianes were governed by their native princes, as we learn from Arrian, and rendered important services to that monarch by repressing the incursions of the Triballi, a powerful Thracian horde situated on their northern frontier. They formed excellent light troops, and were often employed with advantage by both Alexander and his successors.

II. We may assign to the Agrianes the two following towns, namely, 1. By-lazōra, on the frontier leading into the country of the Dardani. It was taken and fortified by Philip, the last king of that name, with a view of resisting the attacks of these barbarians. Polybius describes it as the largest city of Pæonia. Leake makes it correspond to the modern Velesa or Velesso. 2. Almāna, on the Axius, where Perseus encamped, in expectation of being joined by twenty thousand Gauls, whom he was anxious to engage in his service, not long before the battle of Pydna, but whose demands were deemed by him too exorbitant. It answers now to the modern Gradiska.

XI. GRÆCIA.

1. NAME:

I. This country was called *Græcia* by the Romans, whence the name has descended to us. The *Græci*, however, were only one of the ancient tribes of Epirus, according to Aristotle, and never became of any historical importance, though their name must at some period have been extensively spread on the western coast, since the inhabitants of Italy appear to have known the country at first under this name.

II. In the Greek authors, the country we are now considering is called Hellas ('E $\lambda\lambda\acute{a}\varsigma$), though it must be remarked that the name Hellas had a more extensive signification than we attach to it, and was used, in general, to denote the country of the Hellenes, wherever they might happen to be settled; and in this way the Grecian colonies in Asia Minor, in Africa, in Italy, and in Sicily, formed as essential parts of Hellas as Attica, Arcadia, or Bœotia.

Obs. 1. The name Hellas was not applied originally to the whole country of Greece, but merely to a part. According to Aristotle, the most ancient district called Hellas was about Dodona and the River $Achel\bar{o}us$, "for," he adds, "the Sellians dwelt there, and the people who were then called Gracians ($\Gamma \rho aukoi$), but are now termed Hellenes (' $E \lambda \lambda \eta vec$)." The Sellians ($\Sigma \epsilon \lambda \lambda oi$) are called Hellians (' $E \lambda \lambda oi$) by Pindar, and are mentioned in the Iliad as the ministers of the Dodonean, Pelasgian Jove. The country about Dodona was celebrated by Hesiod for the richness of its pastures, under the name of Hellopia. The sanctuary of Dodona itself was called Hella; and a temple legend, different from that which Herodotus heard there, spoke of Hellus, a wood-cutter, to whom the sacred dove had revealed the oracular oak. All this would seem to show that the tribe of the Hellenes passed into Greece from Epirus.

2. We next meet with the name *Hellas* in Thessaly, and, indeed, according to the general but erroneous opinion of the Greeks, the primitive Hellas was in this same country, since they made Thessaly the scene of the myth of Deucalion, and the residence of Hellen his son, from whom they pretended to trace the Hellenic race. *Hellas*, in this second sense of the name, meant a district in the south of Thessaly, near the foot of Mount *Othrus*; and from this the appellation was gradually extended, until it embraced, as we have seen, the whole of Greece. The extension of this name was the result of the extension of the people called *Hellenes*, who gradually spread themselves over the whole country, dispossessing or else subjugating the earlier Pelasgic inhabitants.

2. BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.

I. Greece, in the sense in which we here consider it, excluding, namely, Macedonia and Epirus, as non-Hellenic states, was

bounded on the north by *Macedonia*, on the northwest by *Epirus*, on the west by the *Ionium Mare*, or *Ionian Sea*, on the east by the *Ægæum Mare*, or *Ægæan Sea*, and on the south by the *Mare Mediterraneum*, or *Mediterranean*, of which the other two seas are merely parts.

II. The main divisions of Greece were two in number, namely, Grecia Propria and Peloponnesus. By Greeca Propria, called otherwise Middle Greece, and also Northern Greece, was meant all the country lying without the Isthmus of Corinth, and by the Peloponnesus, otherwise called Southern Greece, was meant all the country lying within, or on the lower side of the same isthmus, and forming one large peninsula.

III. Gracia Propria was subdivided into the following countries: 1. Thessălia. 2. Acarnănia. 3. Ætōlia. 4. Locris. 5. Dōris. 6. Phōcis. 7. Baōtia. 8. Megăris. 9. Attīca.

IV. Peloponnesus was subdivided into the following: 1. Corinthia.
2. Sicyōnia.
3. Achaia.
4. Elis.
5. Arcădia.
6. Argŏlis.
7. Messēnia.
8. Lăcōnia.

Obs. 1. The name Peloponnesus (Πελοπόννησος) means "the island of Pelops" (Πέλοπος νῆσος), and is said to have been derived from Pelops, son of Tantalus, who is made by Grecian mythologists to have been of Phrygian origin. Thucydides (i., 9) simply observes that he came from Asia, and brought great wealth with him. He married Hippodamia, the daughter of Œnomaus, king of Pisa, in Elis, and succeeded to his kingdom. He is said to have subsequently extended his dominions over many of the districts bordering upon Elis, whence the whole country obtained the name of Peloponnesus. Agamemnon and Menelaus were descended from him.

2. The word Πελοπόννησος does not occur in Homer. The original name of the peninsula appears to have been Apia, and was so called, according to Æschylus (Suppl., 266), from Apis, a son of Apollo; or, according to Pausanias (ii., 5, 5), from Apis, a son of Telchin, and descendant of Ægialeus. When Argos had the supremacy, the peninsula, according to Strabo (viii., 371), was sometimes called Argos, and, indeed, Homer seems to use the term Argos in some cases as thus including the whole peninsula. (Thucyd., i., 9.)

3. In giving the limits of Greece or Hellas, we have followed the custom of previous geographical writers. The precise line of demarcation, however, appears to be impracticable. The word Hellas did not convey to Greeks the notion of a certain geographical surface, determined by natural or conventional boundaries; it denoted the country of the Hellencs, and was variously applied, according to the different views entertained of the people who were entitled to that name. When the Hellenes, emerging from their primitive settlement in Epirus, had imparted their name to other tribes, with which they were allied by a community of language and manners, Hellas might properly be said to extend as far as these national features prevailed. Ephorus regarded Acarnania as the first Grecian territory on the west (ap. Strab., viii., 334). Northward of the Ambracian Gulf, the irruption of barbarous hordes had stifled the germs of the

Greek character in the ancient inhabitants of Epirus, and had transformed it into a foreign land.

4. On the east, Greece was commonly held to terminate with Mount Homöle, at the mouth of the Penčus; the more scrupulous, however, excluded even Thessaly from the honor of the Hellenic name, while Strabo, with consistent laxity, admitted a part of Macedonia (viii., init.). Sometimes Ambracia and the mouth of the Peneus were taken as the extreme northern points; but, even when this was done, it was still impossible to draw a precise line of demarkation; for the same reason which justified the exclusion of Epirus, applied, perhaps, much more forcibly to the mountainneers in the interior of Ætolia, whose barbarous origin, or utter degeneracy, was proved by their savage manners, and a language which Thucydides describes as unintelligible. When the Ætolians bade the last Philip withdraw from Hellas, the Macedonian king could fully retort by asking where they should fix its boundaries, and by reminding them that of their own body a very small portion was within the pale from which they wished to exclude him. (Thirlwall, Hist. Gr., vol. i., p. 3, seq., 8vo ed.)

3. EARLY AND LATER INHABITANTS.

I. The people whom we call *Greeks*, or *Hellènes*, were not the earliest inhabitants of the country. Among the names of the many tribes which are said to have occupied the land previous to the Hellenes, the most celebrated is that of the *Pelasgi*, who appear to have settled in most parts of Greece, and from whom a considerable portion of the Greek population was probably descended. The *Caucones*, *Lelèges*, and other barbarous tribes, who also inhabited Greece, are all supposed by Thirlwall to have been parts of the Pelasgic nation. He regards the name "Pelasgi" as a general one, like that of Saxons, Franks, or Alemanni, and supposes each of the Pelasgian tribes to have had also a name peculiar to itself.

II. All these tribes, however, were obliged to submit to the power of the Hellenes, who eventually spread over the greater part of Greece. Their original seat, as already remarked, was, according to Aristotle, near Dodona in Epirus; but they first appeared in the south of Thessaly about B.C. 1384, according to the common chronology.

III. In accordance with the common method of the Greeks of inventing names to account for the origin of nations, the Hellenes are represented as descended from Hellen, son of Deucalion. Hellen had three sons, Dorus, Xuthus, and Eŏlus. Achæus and Ion are represented as the sons of Xuthus; and from these four, Dorus, Eolus, Achæus, and Ion, the Dorians, Eolians, Achæans, and Ionians were descended, who formed the four tribes into which the Hellenic nation was for many

centuries divided, and who were distinguished from each other by many peculiarities in language and institutions.

Obs. We have given here the ordinary Greek account of the origin of the name Dorians, &c. Modern scholars, however, have indulged in some ingenious speculations on this subject, which assume an air of great plausibility. According to these writers, the name Hellenes means "the Warriors" (compare the name of their god ' $\Lambda\pi\ell\lambda\lambda\omega\nu$); the Dorians ($\Delta\omega\rho\iota\ell\iota$) are "Highlanders," from &a and $\delta\rho\sigma\varsigma$; the Eolians ($\Lambda lo\lambda\epsilon\iota$) are "the mixed men," a name which arose when the Dorians first descended from their mountains in the north of Thessaly and incorporated themselves with the Pelasgi of the Thessalian plains. So, again, the Ionians (' $I\omega\nu\iota$) are "the men of the coast" (' $H\iota\nu\iota$), called, also, $\Lambda l\gamma\iota a\lambda\epsilon\iota$, "Beach-men," and the ' $\Lambda\chi a\iota\iota$ are "Sea-men." (Compare Kenrick, Phil. Mus., ii., 367; Muller, Dor., ii., 6, 6; Donaldson, G. G., p. 2.)

IV. At the same time that the Hellenic race was spreading itself over the whole land, numerous colonies from the East are said to have settled in Greece, and to their influence many writers have attributed the civilization of the inhabitants. Thus we read of Egyptian colonies in Argos and Attica, of a Phœnician colony at Thebes in Bœotia, and of a Mysian colony led by Pelops. The very existence of these colonies has been doubted by some writers; but though the evidence of each one individually is perhaps not sufficient to satisfy the critical inquirer, yet the uniform tradition of the Greeks authorizes us to believe that Greece did at early times receive colonies from the East.

4. HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

THE history of Greece may be divided into four periods, of each of which a brief sketch will be here given.

First Period.—From the Earliest Times to the Trojan War. Some account of this period has been given under the preceding section. The time which elapsed from the appearance of the Hellenes in Thessaly to the siege of Troy is usually known by the name of the Heroic Age. Whatever opinion we may form of the Homeric poems, it can hardly be doubted that they present a correct picture of the manners and customs of the age in which the poet lived, which, in all probability, differed little from the manners and customs of the Heroic Age. The state of society described by Homer very much resembles that which existed in Europe in the Feudal Ages. No great power had yet arisen in Greece; it was divided into a number of small states, governed by hereditary chiefs, whose power was limited by a martial aristocracy.

Second Period.—From the Siege of Troy to the Commencement of the Persian Wars, B.C. 500. We learn from Thucydides (i., 12) that the population of Greece was in a very unsettled state for some time after the Trojan war. Of the various migrations which appear to have taken place, the most important in their consequences were those of the Bootians from Thessaly into the country afterward called Bootia, and of the Dorians into the Peloponnesus, the former in the sixtieth, and the latter in the eightieth year after the Trojan war.

About the same period, the western coast of Asia Minor was colonized by the Greeks. The ancient inhabitants of Bœotia, who had been driven out of their homes by the invasion of the Bœotians, together with some Æolians, left Bœotia, B.C. 1124, and settled in Lesbos and on the northwestern coast of Asia Minor. This has been called the Æolic migration, and the settlement in Asia Minor was known by the appellation of Æölis. The Æolians were followed by the Ionians in B.C.1040, who, having been driven by the Achæans from their abode on the lower shore of the Corinthian Gulf, had taken refuge in Attica, whence they migrated to Asia Minor, and settled on the Lydian coast. The southwestern part of the coast of Asia Minor was also colonized about the same period by Dorians, and obtained the name of Doris. The number of Greek colonies, considering the extent of the mother country, was very great; and the readiness with which the Greeks left their homes to settle in foreign parts forms a characteristic feature in their national character. The coasts of Sicily and the southern part of Italy became studded with Greek cities, and the latter region, in particular, obtained on this account the name of Magna Græcia.

The two states of Greece which attained the greatest historical celebrity were Sparta and Athens. The power of Athens was of later growth; but Sparta had, from the time of the Dorian conquest, taken the lead among the Peloponnesian states, a position which she maintained by the conquest of the fertile country of Messenia, B.C. 688. Her superiority was probably owing to the nature of her political institutions, which are said to have been fixed on a firm basis by her celebrated lawgiver Lycurgus, B.C. 884. Athens only rose to importance in the century preceding the Persian wars, but even in this period her power was not more than a match for the little states of Megaris and Ægina. The city was long harassed by intestine commotions, till the time of Solon, B.C. 594, who was chosen by the citizens to frame a new constitution and a new code of laws, to which much of the future greatness of Athens must be ascribed.

The kingly form of government was prevalent in the Heroic Age. But during the period that elapsed between the Trojan war and the Persian invasion, hereditary political power was abolished in almost all the Greek states, with the exception of Sparta, and a republican form of government was established in its stead. Frequent wars, however, between each other, were the almost unavoidable consequence of the existence of so many small states almost equal in power. The evils which arose from this state of things were partly remedied by the influence of the Amphictyonic Council, and partly by the religious games and festivals which were held at stated intervals in different parts of Greece, and during the celebration of which no wars were carried on.

In the sixth century before the Christian era, Greece rapidly advanced in knowledge and civilization. Literature and the fine arts were already cultivated in Athens under the auspices of Pisistratus and his sons, and the products of remote countries were introduced into Greece by the merchants of Corinth and Ægina.

Third Period.—From the Commencement of the Persian Wars to the Death of Philip of Macedon, B.C. 336. This was the most splendid period of Grecian history. The assistance which the Athenians gave to the Asiatic Greeks in their resistance to the Persians, and the part which they took in the burning of Sardis, B.C. 499, drew upon them the vengeance of Darius. A Persian army was sent into Attica, but was entirely defeated at Marathon, B.C. 490, by the Athenians under Miltiades. Ten years afterward, the whole power of the Persian empire was directed against Greece, and an immense army, led in person by Xerxes, advanced as far as Attica; but this expedition also failed; the Persian

fleet was worsted in the battles of Artemisium and Salamis, and the land forces were entirely defeated in the following year, B.C. 479, at Platææ, in Bœotia.

After the battle of Platææ, a confederacy was formed by the Grecian states for the purpose of carrying on the war against the Persians. Sparta was at first placed at the head of it; but the allies, disgusted with the tyranny of Pausanias, the Spartan commander, gave the supremacy to Athens. The Athenians, under the command of Cimon, carried on the war vigorously, defeated the Persian fleets, and plundered the maritime provinces of the empire. During this period, the power of Athens rapidly increased; she possessed a succession of distinguished statesmen, Themistocles, Aristides, Cimon, and Pericles, who all contributed to the advancement of her power, though differing in their political views. Literature was also cultivated by her, and the arts of architecture and sculpture, which were employed to ornament the city, were carried to a degree of excellence that has never since been surpassed.

The haughty conduct of Athens toward the allied states, whom she began to regard as subjects rather than as independent states in alliance with her, produced a confederacy against her, at the head of which stood Sparta; and thus arose the war between this last-mentioned state and Athens, which lasted for twenty-seven years (B.C. 431-404), and is usually known by the name of the Peloponnesian War. It terminated by Sparta's being again placed at the head of the Grecian states.

Soon after the conclusion of this war, Sparta engaged in a contest with the Persian empire, which lasted from B.C. 400 to 394. The splendid successes which Agesilaus, the Spartan king, obtained over the Persian troops in Asia Minor, and the manifest weakness of the Persian empire, which had been already shown by the retreat of the ten thousand Greeks from the heart of the empire, appear to have induced Agesilaus to entertain the design of overthrowing the Persian monarchy; but he was obliged to return to his native country to defend it against a powerful confederacy, which had been formed by the Corinthians, Thebans, Argives, Athenians, and Thessalians, for the purpose of throwing off the Spartan dominion. The confederate states were not, however, successful in their attempt, and the Spartan supremacy was again secured for a brief period by a general peace, made B.C. 387, and usually known by the name of the Peace of Antalcidas. Ten years afterward, the rupture between Thebes and Sparta began, which led to a general war in Greece, and for a short time placed Thebes at the head of the Grecian states. After the death, however, of Epaminondas, at the battle of Mantinea, B.C. 362, Thebes again sank into her original obscurity. The Spartan supremacy, however, was destroyed by this war, and her power still more humbled by the restoration of Messenia to independence, B.C. 361. From the conclusion of this war to the reign of Philip of Macedon, Greece remained without any ruling power.

It is only necessary here to mention the part which Philip took in the Sacred War, which lasted ten years (B.C. 356-346), in which he appeared as the defender of the Amphictyonic Council, and which terminated by the conquest of the Phocians. The Athenians, urged on by Demosthenes, made an alliance with the Thebans, for the purpose of resisting Philip; but their defeat at Chæronea, B.C. 388, secured for the Macedonian king the supremacy of Greece. In the same year a congress of Grecian states was held at Corinth, in which Philip was chosen generalissimo of the Greeks in a projected war against the Persian empire; but his assassination in B.C. 336 caused this enterprise to devolve upon his son Alexander.

Fourth Period .- From the Accession of Alexander the Great to the Roman Con-

quest, B.C. 146. The conquests of Alexander extended Greek influence over the greater part of Asia west of the Indus. After his death, the dominion of the East was contested by his generals, and two powerful empires were permanently established; that of the Ptolemies in Egypt, and that of the Seleucidæ in Syria. The dominions of the early Syrian kings embraced the greater part of Western Asia; but their empire was soon divided into various independent kingdoms, such as that of Bactria, Pergamus, &c., in all of which the Greek language was spoken, not merely at court, but to a considerable extent in the towns. From the death of Alexander to the Roman conquest, Macedonia remained the ruling power in Greece. The Ætolian and Achæan leagues were formed, the former B.C. 284, the latter B.C. 281, for the purpose of resisting the Macedonian kings. Macedonia was conquered by the Romans B.C. 197, and the Greek states were declared independent. This, however, was merely nominal; they only exchanged the rule of the Macedonian kings for that of the Roman people, and in B.C. 146 Greece was reduced to the form of a Roman province called Achaia, though certain cities, such as Athens, Delphi, &c., were allowed to have the rank of free towns. The history of Greece from this period forms part of that of the Roman empire. It was overrun by the Goths in A.D. 267, and again in A.D. 398, under Alaric; and, after being occupied by the Crusaders and Venetians, at last fell into the power of the Turks on the conquest of Constantinople.

5. MOUNTAINS.

I. The chain called *Olympus* and the *Cambunian* Mountains, ranging east and west, and commencing with the Ægean Sea, or the *Sinus Thermaïcus*, near the fortieth parallel of north latitude, is prolonged, under the name of Mount *Lingon*, until it touches the Adriatic at the Acroceraunian promontory.

II. At a point about midway between the Ægean and Ionian Seas, Olympus and Lingon are traversed nearly at right angles by the still longer and vaster chain called *Pindus*, which strikes off nearly southward from the southern face of Olympus, and forms the boundary between *Thessaly* and *Epirus*.

III. About the thirty-ninth degree of latitude, Pindus sends forth the lateral chain of *Othrys*, which takes an easterly course, forming the southern boundary of Thessaly, and reaching the sea between Thessaly and the northern coast of Eubœa.

IV. Southwest of Othrys, the chain of Pindus, under the name of *Tymphrestus*, still continues, until another lateral chain, called *Œta*, projects from it again toward the east, terminating at the Eubœan Strait and the Pass of Thermopylæ.

V. At the point of junction with Œta, the chain of Pindus forks into two branches; one striking to the westward of south, and reaching across Ætolia, under the names of Aracynthus, Curius, Corax, and Taphiassus, to the promontory called An-

tirrhion, situated on the northern side of the narrow entrance of the Corinthian Gulf, over against the corresponding promontory of Rhion in Peloponnesus; the other tending southeast, and forming Parnassus, Helicon, and Cithæron. Mounts Ægaleus and Hymettus, even down to the southernmost cape of Attica, Sunium, may be treated as a continuation of this chain.

VI. From the eastern extremity of Œta, also, a range of hills, inferior in height to the preceding, takes its departure in a southeasterly direction, under the various names of Cnēmis, Ptoon, and Teumessus. It is joined with Cithæron by the lateral communication, ranging from west to east, called Parnes; and the celebrated Pentelicus, with its abundant marble quarries, constitutes its connecting link, to the south of Parnes, with the chain from Cithæron to Sunium.

VII. From the promontory of Antirrhion the line of mountains crosses into the Peloponnesus, and stretches in a southerly direction down to the extremity of that peninsula called Tanarus, now Cape Matapan. It forms the boundary between Elis with Messenia on one side, and Arcadia with Laconia, on the other, and bears the successive names of Olěnus, Panachaïcus, Pholŏe, Erymanthus, Lycaus, Parrhasius, and Taÿgĕtus.

VIII. Another series of mountains strikes off from Cithæron toward the southwest, constituting, under the names of Oneia and Geraneia, the rugged and lofty Isthmus of Corinth, and then spreading itself into the Peloponnesus. On entering the peninsula, one of its branches tends westward to the north of Arcadia, comprising the Acrocorinthus, or citadel of Corinth, the high peak of Cyllēne, the mountains of Aroanii and Lampeia, and ultimately joining Erymanthus and Pholoe; while the other branch strikes southward toward the southeastern Cape of Peloponnesus, the formidable promontory of Malea, now Cape St. Angelo, and exhibits itself under the successive names of Apesas, Artemisium, Parthenium, Parnon, Thornax, and Zarex.

IX. From the eastern extremity of Olympus, in a direction rather to the westward of south, stretches the range of mountains first called *Ossa*, and afterward *Pelion*, down to the southeastern corner of Thessaly. The long, lofty, and naked backbone of the island of Eubœa may be viewed as a continuance

both of this chain and of the chain of Othrys. The line is farther prolonged by a series of islands in the Archipelago, namely, Andros, Tenos, Mycŏnos, and Naxos, belonging to the group called the Cyclădes, or islands encircling the sacred centre of Delos. Of these Cyclades, others are in like manner a continuance of the chain which reaches to Cape Sunium, namely, Ceos, Cythnos, Seriphos, and Siphnos, joining on to Attica, as Andros does to Eubœa.

X. We might even consider the great island of Crete as a prolongation of the system of mountains which breasts the winds and waves at Cape *Malea*, the island of *Cythēra* forming the intermediate link between them. *Sciāthus*, *Scopēlos*, and *Scyros*, to the northeast of Eubœa, also mark themselves out as outlying peaks of the range comprehending *Pelion* and *Eubœa*.

XI. We may remark, in conclusion, that no part of Europe, if we except Switzerland, is so mountainous throughout the whole of its extent as Greece, being traversed in almost every direction by numerous ridges, the summits of which, though not so lofty as the central range of the Alps, attain, in many instances, to the elevation of perpetual snow. A comparatively small proportion, therefore, of the surface of Greece, is left for level ground. Not only few continuous plains, but even few continuous valleys, exist throughout all Greece proper. The largest spaces of level ground are seen in Thessaly, in Ætolia, in the western portion of the Peloponnesus, and in Bœotia; but irregular mountains, valleys frequent but isolated, landlocked basins and declivities, which often occur, but seldom last long, form the character of the country.

Oss. A more detailed account of individual mountain chains will be given in the geography of the separate divisions of Greece.

6. GEOLOGICAL FEATURES.

- 1. The islands of the Cyclades, as also Eubwa, Attica, and Laconia, consist for the most part of micaceous schist, combined with and often covered by crystal-line granular limestone. Professor Ross remarks upon the character of the Greek limestone, that, hard and intractable to the mason, jagged and irregular in its fracture, it first determined in early times the polygonal style of architecture, which has been denominated (he observes) Cyclopian and Pelasgic, without the least reason for either denomination.
- 2. The centre and western part of the Peloponnesus, as well as the country north of the Corinthian Gulf, from the Gulf of Ambracia to the Strait of Eubœa, present a calcareous formation, varying in different localities in color, consistency, and hardness, but generally belonging or approximating to the chalk. It

is often very compact, but is distinguished in a marked manner from the crystalline limestone above mentioned. Two of the loftiest summits in Greece exhibit this formation, Parnassus, and the point of St. Elias in Taÿgĕtus.

3. Clay slate, and conglomerates of sand, lime, and clay, are found in many parts; a close and firm conglomerate of lime composes the Isthmus of Corinth; loose deposits of pebbles, and calcareous breecia, occupy also some portions of the territory.

4. But the most important and essential elements of the Grecian soil consist of the diluvial and alluvial formations with which the troughs and basins are tilled up, resulting from the decomposition of the older adjoining rocks. In these reside the productive powers of the country, and upon these the grain and vegetables for the subsistence of the people depend.

5. The mountain regions are to a great degree barren, destitute at present of wood or any useful vegetation, though there is reason to believe that they were better wooded in antiquity. In many parts, however, and especially in Ætolia and Acarnania, they afford plenty of timber, and in all parts pasture for the cattle during summer, at a time when the plains are thoroughly burned up.

6. The low grounds of Thessaly, the valley of the Cephīsus, and the borders of the Lake Copaīs in Bœotia, the western portion of Elis, the plains of Stratos on the confines of Acarnania and Etolia, and those near the River Pamīsus in Messenia, both are now, and were in ancient times, remarkable for their abundant produce.

7. RIVERS.

General Remarks.

Besides the scarcity of wood for fuel, there is another serious inconvenience to which the low grounds of Greece are exposed, namely, the want of a supply of water at once adequate and regular. Abundance of rain falls during the autumnal and winter months, little or none during the summer. The naked limestone of the hills neither absorbs nor retains moisture, so that the rain runs off as rapidly as it falls, and springs are rare. Most of the rivers of Greece are torrents in early spring, and dry before the end of summer. We will now proceed to give an enumeration of the more important rivers of this country.

(A.) Rivers on the Western and Southern Side.

1. Achēlōus, a large and rapid stream, probably the largest in Greece, rising in Mount Pindus, and which divided Acarnania from Etolia. Thucydides describes it as flowing through the country of the Dolopians, Agræans, and Acarnanians, and discharging itself into the Ionian Sea near the city of Eniada. It was particularly noted for the quantity of alluvium which it deposited at its mouth, and which formed there a cluster of small islands called Echinādes, and now the islands of Curzolari. As the course of this rapid river varied greatly, which occasioned inundations in the districts through which it flowed, it was found necessary to check its inroads by means of dikes and dams. Hence arose the legend of the poets, that Hercules,

namely, and the river-god, contended for the hand of Deïanira, and that Hercules, having proved victorious, tore off one of the horns of the god, who had assumed in the contest the form of a bull. The Naiads took the horn, and, having filled it with the various productions of the seasons, gave it to the Goddess of Plenty. The Achelous appears to have been a celebrated river in the earliest times, since its name is frequently employed by the ancient poets for the element of water. The modern name is Aspro Potamo, or "the White River;" Leake calls it simply the Aspro. Among the tributaries of the Achelous may be mentioned, 1. The Inachus, rising in Mount Lacmus, in the chain of Pindus, and now, according to Leake, the Ariadha. 2. The Anapus, coming in, like the former, from the northwest, and emptying into the Acheloüs about eighty stadia south of Stratus. It is now the Aetos. 3. The Campylus, coming in from the east through the territory of Aperantia, and passing by the city of Aperantia. It is now the Carpenitze.

2. Evēnus (Εὔηνος), the chief river of Ætolia, and a stream of considerable size, rising, according to Strabo, in the country of the Bomienses, who occupied the northeast extremity of Ætolia. It is now the Fidari, and near its mouth stood the modern Missolonghi. The more ancient name of this river was the Lycormas. The Evenus is celebrated in fable from the story of Nessus, the centaur, who was slain here by Hercules.

3. Plistus (Πλεῖστος), a river of Phocis, three stadia from Delphi, and flowing between Parnassus and Mount Cirphis. It is now the Sizaliska, and flows into the Sinus Crissæus, near the ruins of the ancient Cirrha. The Sinus Crissæus is now the Gulf of Salona, and was an inlet of the Corinthian Gulf.

4. Neměa, a small river separating the territory of Corinth from that of Sicyon, and falling into the bay of Lechæum, a part of the Sinus Corinthiacus. It rose in Argolis, a little above the celebrated village of the same name. It is now the Coutzomadi. A severe battle was fought on its banks between the Bœotians, Corinthians, Athenians, and other allies, against the Lacedæmonians, on the first breaking out of hostilities posterior to the Peloponnesian war, when the latter were victorious.

5. Asopus, rising in the Argolic Mountains, and falling into

the Sinus Corinthiacus a little below Sicyon. It is now the *Basilico*. That portion of Sicyonia which this river watered in its course was called *Asopia*. The games instituted by Adrastus in honor of Apollo were celebrated on its banks.

6. Crāthis, a river of Achaia, descending from a mountain of the same name on the borders of Arcadia, and flowing into the Sinus Corinthiacus to the west of Ægira. It was from this stream that the Italian Crathis, which flowed between Crotona and Sybaris, derived its appellation. The Achæan Crathis is now the Acratha, and is one of the few streams on this coast that retain their water throughout the year.

7. Pirus, the most considerable stream of Achaia, called by Strabo the *Melas*, and falling into the outer part of the Sinus Corinthiacus about eighty stadia from Patræ. Near its mouth stood Olĕnus, one of the most ancient cities of Achaia. The Pirus is now the Camenitza.

8. Larissus, rising in Mount Scollis in Elis, and forming the separation between Achaia and Elis. It is now the Risso or Mana. Pausanias notices a temple of the Larissean Minerva near this stream.

9. Pēnēus (Πηνειός), a river of Elis, falling into the sea a little below the promontory *Chelonites*. Modern travellers describe it as a broad and rapid stream. The city of Elis was situated on it, in the upper part of its course. It is now the *Igliaco*. There was a celebrated river of the same name in Thessaly, flowing through the Vale of *Tempe*.

10. Alphēus ("Αλφειος), a celebrated river of Elis, rising on the Laconian border of Arcadia. After losing itself under ground for some miles, it reappeared not far from Megalŏpŏlis, traversed the remainder of Arcadia, and then, entering Elis, discharged its waters, now swelled by numerous tributary streams, into the Ionian Sea. Here, however, as the poets reported, its course did not terminate, for, flowing beneath the ocean, it hastened to mingle its waters with those of the fountain Arethūsa, in the island of Ortygia, near Syracuse. The Alpheus flowed a little to the south of Olympia, the scene of the celebrated Olympic games. The modern name is usually given as the Rofea or Rufia; but, according to Leake, it has this name only below its junction with the Ladon, above which it is commonly called the River of Karitena.

Tributaries of the Alphēus on the North.

1. Helisson, a small but rapid river, rising in the eastern part of Arcadia, and, after traversing Megalopolis, which it divided into two halves, falling into the Alpheus a little below the city. According to Leake, it is now the Davia. 2. Gortynius, to the west of the preceding, called at its source the Lusius, because Jupiter was said to have been washed there when he was born. It flowed by the town of Gortys or Gortyna, and was remarkable for the coldness of its waters, especially in summer. It is now, according to Leake, the Atzikolo. 3. Buphăgus, to the west of the preceding, and forming the line of separation between the territories of Heraa and Megalopolis. Leake says that it is dry in summer. 4. Aroanius, called also the Olbius, which descends from the mountains to the north of Pheneus, and usually finds a vent in some natural caverns, or katabothra, at the extremity of the plain; but when by accident these happened to be blocked up, the waters filled the whole valley, and, communicating with the Ladon and Alpheus, overflowed the beds of these rivers as far as Olympia. 5. Ladon, rising near the village of Lycuria, between Pheneus and Clitor. It was accounted the most beautiful stream of Greece, and was farther celebrated, as Pausanias affirms, from the adventure of Daphne and Apollo. According to Leake, the Ladon is now called the Rufea or Rofia, and the Alpheus bears this same name only below its junction with the Ladon, above which it is usually called the River of Karitena. 6. Enīpeus, a small stream, called in Strabo's time the Barnichius, and flowing near Salmone.

Tributaries of the Alphēus on the South.

1. Thius, a small stream on the road from Megalopolis to Sparta. 2. Mallus and Syrus, two small streams more to the west, on the road from Megalopolis to Messenia. 3. Carnion and Gatheates, two small streams more to the west, the latter of which rose near the village of Gathea. 4. Acheron and Dalion, flowing into the Alpheus near Typăna in Elis. The Acheron was probably so called from the peculiar veneration with which Ceres, Proserpina, and Pluto were worshipped on its banks. The more celebrated Acheron was in Thesprotia, in Epirus; and there was also a third river of the name in Bruttium, in Italy.

11. Anigrus, rising in a mountain of Arcadia called Lapitha, and after flowing through Elis, falling into the Sinus Cyparissius, or Gulf of Arcadia. It formed marshes at its mouth from the want of a fall to carry off the water fully. This stagnant pool exhaled an odor so fetid as to be perceptible at the distance of twenty stadia, and the fish caught there were so tainted with the infection that they could not be eaten. Pausanias, however, affirms that this miasma was not confined to the marshes, but could be traced to the very source of the river. It was ascribed to the centaurs having washed the wounds inflicted by Hercules's envenomed shafts in this stream. The Anigrus received the waters of a fountain said to possess the property of curing cutaneous disorders. This source issued from a cavern sacred to the nymphs called Anigriades. Leake

gives the modern name of the Anigrus as the *Mavro-Potamo*, or "Black River," and says that in summer the marsh is still very fetid, and the air extremely unwholesome.

12. Nēda, rising in Mount Lycœus, in Arcadia, and, after a short but rapid course, falling into the sea a little below Pyrgos. Near Phigalēa it received the small river Limax. The Neda formed the boundary between Elis and Messenia. Leake gives the modern name as the Buzi; Cramer makes it the Paulizza.

13. Cyparisseïs, a river of Messenia, rising in Mount Ægaleus, and flowing into the sea near Cyparissia. The modern name is the River of Arcadia.

14. Pamīsus, a river of Messenia, and the largest stream in the Peloponnesus, from the quantity of its water, though in length of course it was inferior to the Alphēus and Eurōtas, since it flowed for the space of only one hundred stadia. It rose near the city of Messene, and fell into the Sinus Messeniacus, or Gulf of Coron. Pausanias affirms that the waters of the Pamisus were remarkably pure, and abounded with various kinds of fish. He adds that it was navigable for ten stadia from the sea. Walpole makes the modern name the Pirnatza; but Leake, the Dhipotamo.

15. Eurotas, a river of Laconia, and one of the largest streams of the Peloponnesus. It rose near Asea in Arcadia, and not long after lost itself under ground, and then reappeared in the district of Belmina, on the borders of Laconia. After this it traversed the latter province, passing by Sparta, and emptied into the sea near Helos. The Eurotas flowed to the east of Sparta, as we are informed by Polybius; its stream was full and rapid, and could seldom be forded. On its left bank was a range of hills, called Menelaium, stretching to the southeast of the city, and rising abruptly from the river. The Eurotas is now called the Vasili Potamo (Basilipotamo as written), or "the Royal River," in allusion to certain petty princes, dependent upon the Eastern emperors, who possessed a small kingdom in this quarter during the Middle Ages. Dodwell, however, states that the most common appellation for the Eurotas, at the present day, is the Iri. The Eurotas receives, a little below the ruins of Sparta, a river named Pantalimona or Trypiotiko, which, coming from the chain of Taygetus, flows to the west of the ancient city. It is probably the ancient Cnacion.

(B.) Rivers on the Eastern Side.

- 1. Tanus, a river of Argolis, near the confines of Laconia, rising in Mount Parnon, and flowing into the Gulf of Thyrea, or Sinus Thyreātes, now the Bay of Astro, an inlet of the Sinus Argolicus, or Gulf of Nauplia. It is now called Hagios Petros, or St. Peter's River, from a small place of the same name, which is also that of the surrounding district.
- 2. Erasinus, a river of Argolis, north of the preceding, and mentioned by several writers of antiquity. Herodotus states that it was said to derive its waters from the Lake of Stymphālus, in Arcadia, by a subterranean channel. According to Pausanias, it reappeared in Arcadia, at the foot of Mount Chaon, and, joining itself with another river named Phrixus, the united streams entered the Sinus Argolicus between Lerna and Temenium. The modern name of the Erasinus is given by Leake as the Kefalari.
- 3. Ināchus, a river of Argolis, rising in Mount Lyrceius, on the confines of Arcadia, and, after flowing at the foot of the acropolis of Argos, falling into the Sinus Argolicus. The poets fabled that it was a branch of the Inachus of Amphilochia, in Acarnania, which, after mingling with the Acheloüs, passed under ground, and reappeared in Argolis. According to modern travellers, the Inachus is usually dry, but is supplied with casual floods after hard rains, and the melting of snow on the surrounding mountains. In the winter it sometimes descends from the mountains in a rolling mass, when it does much damage to the modern town of Argos. It rises about ten miles from Argos, at a place called Mushi, in the way to Tripoli, in Arcadia. The modern name is the Xeria, which means "the dry."
- 4. Cephisus, a river of Attica, rising, according to Strabo, in the demus of Trinemes, and, after flowing through the Attic plains to the west of Athens, and passing under the long walls, discharging itself into the Sinus Saronicus, or Gulf of Engia, near the port of Phalērum. The geographer adds, that in summer it was nearly dry, which corresponds with the accounts of modern travellers, though Sophocles, in the Œdipus Coloneus, describes it as a perennial stream. The modern name is said to be the Podhonista. This river was generally called the Cephisus Atticus, to distinguish it from the Cephisus of Eleu-

sis, another stream of the same name flowing near the city of Eleusis, and falling into the Sinus Saronicus between this lastmentioned place and the Piræeus. There was a third *Cephisus* in Bœotia.

- 5. Ilissus, a small stream of Attica, rising in the mountains to the east of Athens, and which, after receiving the still smaller Eridānus, flowed by Athens, and entered the Sinus Saronicus a little below the mouth of the Cephisus Atticus. From it Athens was principally supplied with water. At the present day it loses itself, after a course of a few miles, in the marshes to the south of Athens. From the beautiful passage of the Phædrus, in which Plato alludes to it, it appears to have been at that period a perennial stream, whereas now it is almost always dry, its waters being either drawn off to irrigate the neighboring gardens, or to supply the artificial fountains of the modern city. It is called at the present day the Ilisse.
- 6. Asopus, a river of Bæotia, rising in Mount Cithæron, near Platææ, and flowing into the Eurīpus, or strait between the mainland and the island of Eubæa. It separated the territories of Platææ and Thebes, and also traversed in its course the whole of southern Bæotia. Though generally a small and sluggish stream, yet after heavy rains it could not easily be forded. It was on the banks of the Asopus that the battle of Platææ was fought. The plain along its northern bank was called Parasopias. This river still retains the name of Asopo.
- 7. Ismēnus, a small river of Bæotia, flowing, not into the sea, but into the Lake of Hylice, now the Lake of Likari. The Ismenus flowed in the immediate vicinity of Thebes, at the foot of a hill. It was sacred to Apollo, hence called Ismenius, who had a temple here. According to Dodwell, this stream has no water except after heavy rains, when it becomes a torrent, and rushes into the Lake of Likari about four miles to the northwest of Thebes. The modern name of the Ismenus is the Ismeno.
- 8. Permessus, a small river of Bæotia, rising in Mount Helicon, and which, after uniting its waters with those of the Olmius, flowed along with that stream into the Lake Copaïs, near Haliartus. Both the Permessus and Olmius received their supplies from the fountains of Aganippe and Hippocrene. The Permessus is now the Panitza.

- 9. Cephisus, a river rising at the foot of Mount Parnassus, close to Lilæa, and which, after traversing the plains of Phocis and part of the Bœotian territory, emptied into the Lake Copaïs. The modern name is Mavro Potamo, or "Black River." Hesiod compared it to a serpent, from the many sinuosities of its course. According to the poets, the son of the god of this stream introduced the worship of the Graces into Bœotia, and hence the peculiar attachment which these deities were said to have for the waters of this river.
- 10. Asōpus, a river of Thessaly, rising in Mount Œta, and falling into the Sinus Maliacus, a little distance beyond Thermopylæ. It flowed through a gorge in the mountains inclosing the Trachinian plain.
- 11. Sperchīus ($\Sigma \pi \epsilon \rho \chi \epsilon \iota \delta \varsigma$), a river of Thessaly, flowing from Mount Tymphrestus, a lofty range forming part of the chain of Pindus, in the country of the $Eni\bar{a}nes$. Homer frequently mentions this river as belonging to the territories of Achilles around the Sinus Maliacus. It empties into this gulf. The ancient name of this stream appears to have reference to its rapid course ($\sigma \pi \acute{e} \rho \chi \epsilon \sigma \theta a\iota$, "to move rapidly"). The modern name is the Hellada.
- 12. Penēus (Πηνειός), a river of Thessaly, rising in the chain of Pindus, and falling into the Sinus Thermaicus, or Gulf of Saloniki, after traversing the whole breadth of the country. Toward its mouth it flows through the celebrated Vale of Tempe. It is said to be never dry, though in summer it is shallow. After heavy rains, and the sudden melting of the snows on Pindus, it sometimes overflows its banks, and becomes an impetuous torrent. Ælian, in his description of the Vale of Tempe, makes the Peneus flow through it like oil; and Dodwell remarks that, in its course through the modern town of Larissa, it has at the present day a surface as smooth as oil. The Peneus is called by the Turks Ababa, by the Greeks the Salambria. This latter name appears to be derived from σαλάμβη, "an outlet," and was applied originally to that part of the stream flowing through the Vale of Tempe, where the river has forced a passage through the rocks of Ossa and Olympus. Among the tributaries of the Peneus may be mentioned the Phanix, the Titaresius, accounted a branch of the infernal Styx, from its having a thick, unctuous substance

floating like oil on its surface, the *Apidanus*, and *Enipeus*. The last two united their waters to the north of *Pharsālus*.

8. LAKES.

I. The disposition and properties of the Grecian territory, though not maintaining permanent rivers, are favorable to the multiplication of lakes and marshes. There are numerous hollows and inclosed basins, out of which the water can find no superficial escape, and where, unless it makes for itself a subterranean passage through rifts in the mountains, it remains either as a marsh or a lake, according to the time of the year.

II. In Thessaly we find the Lakes *Nesōnis* and *Bæbēis*; in Ætolia, between the Acheloüs and Evenus, Strabo mentions the Lake of *Trichōnis*, besides several other lakes, which it is difficult to identify individually, though the quantity of ground covered by lake and marsh is, as a whole, very considerable.

III. In Beotia are situated the lakes Copaïs, Hylice, and Harma, the first of the three being formed chiefly by the River Cephisus, flowing from Parnassus on the northwest, and shaping for itself a sinuous course through the mountains of Phocis. On the northeast and east, the Lake Copaïs is bounded by the high land of Mount Ptöon, which intercepts its communication with the Strait of Eubea. Through the limestone of this mountain the water has either found or forced several subterranean cavities, by which it obtains a partial egress on the other side of the rocky hill, and then flows into the strait.

IV. The Catabothra, as they were termed in antiquity, of the Lake Copaïs, still exist, but in an imperfect and half-obstructed condition. Even in antiquity, however, they never fully sufficed to carry off the surplus waters of the Cephisus; for the remains are still found of an artificial tunnel, pierced through the whole breadth of the rock, and with perpendicular apertures at proper intervals to let in the air from above. This tunnel, one of the most interesting remnants of antiquity, since it must date from the prosperous days of the old Orchomenus, anterior to its absorption into the Bæotian league, as well as to the preponderance of Thebes, is now choked up and rendered useless. It may, perhaps, have been designedly obstructed by the hand of an enemy, and the scheme of Alexander the Great, who commissioned an engineer from Chalcis to reopen it, was defeated first by discontents in Bæotia, and ultimately by his early death.

V. The Catabothra of the Lake Copaïs are a specimen of the phænomenon so frequent in Greece, namely, lakes and rivers finding for themselves subterranean passages through the cavities in the limestone rocks, and even pursuing their unseen course for a considerable distance before they emerge to the light of day. In Arcadia, especially, several remarkable examples of subterranean water communication occur: this central region of Peloponnesus presents a cluster of such completely inclosed valleys or basins.

OBS. I. A more particular account of the Grecian lakes will be given in the description of the different divisions of the country.

2. The familiarity of the Greeks with the phænomenon of the subterranean courses of certain rivers was in part the source of some geographical suppositions, which now appear to us extravagant, respecting the long subterranean and submarine course of streams, and their reappearance at very distant points. Sophocles said that the Inachus of Acarmania joined the Argolic Inachus; Ibycus, the poet, affirmed that the Asopus, near Sicyon, had its source in Phrygia; the River Inopus, of the little island of Delos, was alleged by others to be an effluent from the mighty Nile. This disappearance and reappearance of rivers connected itself, in the minds of ancient physical philosophers, with the supposition of vast reservoirs of water in the interior of the earth, which were protruded upward to the surface by some gaseous force. (Grote, History of Greece, vol. i., p. 287, seqq.)

9. PROMONTORIES.

(A.) Promontories on the Western Side.

1. Leucate Promontorium, at the southwestern extremity of the island of Leucas or Leucadia, off the coast of Acarnania. It is now Cape Ducato, and the modern name of the island is Santa Maura. 2. Crithōte Promontorium, on the coast of Acarnania, facing Ithaca, now Cape Candilli. 3. Antirrhium Promontorium, on the coast of Ætolia, at the narrow entrance of the Sinus Corinthiacus, and facing the promontory of Rhium, on the opposite coast of Achaia, from which circumstance it derived its name. The narrowness of the strait rendered this point of great importance for the passage of troops to and from Ætolia and the Peloponnesus. Antirrhium was sometimes called Rhium Molycricum, from its vicinity to the town of Molycrium, and also Rhium Ætolicum. At the present day there are two castles on Antirrhium and Rhium, and the strait is sometimes called the Dardanelles of Lepanto.

4. Araxus Promontorium, on the coast of Achaia, to the southwest of Rhium, and now Cape Papas. 5. Hyrmine Promontorium, on the coast of Elis, to the southwest of the preceding, and west of the harbor of Cyllene. It is now Cape Chiarenza. 6. Chelonites Promontorium, to the southwest of the preceding, and forming the westernmost extremity of Elis. It is now Cape Tornese. 7. Pheia Promontorium, on the coast of Elis, to the southeast of the preceding, and now Cape Scaphidia. 8. Ichthys Promontorium, on the same coast, and near its termination, now Cape Catacolo. 9. Cyparissium Promontorium, on the coast of Messenia, now Cape Canello, or, according to others, Cape Apidaglia.

(B.) Promontories on the Southern Side.

1. Acritas Promontorium, on the coast of Messenia, at its southernmost extremity, now Cape Gallo. 2. Thyrides Promontorium, on the coast of Laconia, at its southwesternmost extremity, now Cape Grosso. 3. Tænärum Promontorium, on the same coast, at its southernmost extremity, and forming the most southern part also of the Peloponnesus. It is now Cape Matapan, a corruption of the ancient Greek μέτωπον, "a front," and a name alluding to the bold front with which this promon-

tory projects into the Mediterranean. Near it was a cave, one of the fabled entrances to the lower world, and through which Hercules was said to have dragged up Cerberus to the light of day. On the promontory was a temple of Neptune, which was accounted an inviolable asylum. Tænarum became subsequently famous for the beautiful marble of its quarries, which the Romans held in the highest estimation, and which was a species of verd antique. 4. Onugnăthos Promontorium, on the coast of Laconia, and to the northeast of the preceding, being situate at the opposite extremity of the Sinus Laconicus. Greek name means "the ass's jaw-bone" (ὄνου γνάθος). promontory at the present day is detached from the main land, and is called Cape Xyli, forming the extremity of an island called Isola dei Servi, or the island of Cervo. 5. Malea Promontorium, a celebrated headland, on the coast of Laconia, to the east of the preceding, and forming the southeasternmost extremity of Laconia and the Peloponnesus. It was considered by the ancients the most dangerous point in the circumnavigation of the peninsula, and hence arose the proverbial expression, quoted by Strabo, Μαλέαν δὲ κάμψας, ἐπιλάθου τῶν οἴκαδε, "After having doubled Malea, forget the things at home," where, no doubt, we ought to read $\kappa \dot{a} \mu \pi \tau \omega \nu$, "while doubling." This promontory is now called Cape St. Angelo, but sometimes Cape Malio.

(C.) Promontories on the Eastern Side.

1. Struthnus Promontorium, on the coast of Argolis, facing to the west, and projecting into the Sinus Argolicus. It answers, probably, to the modern Cape Coraka. 2. Buporthmus Promontorium, on the southeastern coast of Argolis, facing the island of Hydrea. It was a lofty headland rising boldly from the sea, and on the summit were erected temples to Ceres, Proserpina, and Minerva Promachorma. 3. Scyllæum Promontorium, now Cape Skyllo, at the southeastern extremity of Argolis, and said to have derived its name from Scylla, the daughter of Nisus. It formed, together with the opposite promontory of Sunium, the entrance of the Sinus Saronicus. 4. Spiræum Promontorium, on the eastern coast of Argolis, near its upper extremity; now Cape Franco. 5. Amphiāle Promontorium, on the western coast of Attica, over against the isl-

and of Salamis, and now Cape Daphne. 6. Zoster Promontorium, on the same coast, but more to the southeast. It consisted of several slender points extending into the sea. This cape, according to Pausanias, was sacred to Latona, Diana, and Apollo. It is now Cape Halikes. 7. Astypalæa Promontorium, to the southeast of the preceding, and near the extremity of Attica. Now Cape Anaphiso.

8. Sunium Promontorium, a celebrated headland of Attica, forming the extreme point of that country toward the south. It was sacred to Minerva, and here the goddess had a beautiful temple crowning the height. According to modern travellers, nine columns, without their entablatures, front the sea, in a line from west-northwest to east-southeast; three are standing on the side toward the land, on the north; and two, with a pilaster, next to the corner one of the northern columns, toward the sea, on the east; and there is a solitary one on the southeastern side. This last has obtained for the promontory the name of Capo Colonna, or the Cape of the Column.

9. Petalia Promontorium, a promontory of Eubea, at the southwestern extremity of the island. It is now Cape Carysto. 10. Geræstus Promontorium, to the east of the preceding, and at the southeastern extremity of the island. It is now Cape Mantelo. Here, as we learn from Strabo, was a celebrated temple dedicated to Neptune. 11. Caphareus Promontorium, north of the preceding, and now Cape D'Oro. It was famed for the shipwreck of the Grecian fleet returning from Troy, a disaster brought about by the false beacons which Nauplius, king of the country, set up for this purpose, in order to avenge the death of his son Palamedes. 12. Chersonesus Promontorium, on the eastern coast of Eubœa, and to the northwest of the preceding. It is now Cape Cherronisi. 13. Phalasia Promontorium, on the same coast, higher up, now Cape Kandili. 14. Artemisium Promontorium, about the middle of the northern coast, and deriving its name from a temple of Artemis (Diana) in its vicinity. Off this coast the Greeks gained their first victory over the fleet of Xerxes. The modern name, according to Mannert, is Cape Syrochori. 15. Cenœum Promontorium, the extreme point of Eubœa to the northwest, and projecting into the Sinus Maliacus. It is now Cape Lithada.

16. Posidium Promontorium, a promontory of Thessaly, in the district of Phthiotis, and closing the Sinus Pagasæus to the south. It is now Cape Stauro. 17. Eantium Promontorium, a promontory of Thessaly, in the same district, to the north of the preceding, and closing the Sinus Pagasaus on the Magnesian side. It is now Cape Trikeri or Volo. 18. Magnesiæ Promontorium, or Magnesium Promontorium, a promontory of Thessaly, at the southeastern extremity of Magnesia, and now Hagios Georgios, or Cape St. George. 19. Sepias *Promontorium*, to the northwest of the preceding, and on the same coast of Magnesia, now probably the cape which bears the modern name of Hagios Demetrios, or St. Demetrius. Leake, however, makes it the same with Cape St. George. This promontory is celebrated in mythology as the spot where Peleus lay in wait for Thetis, and whence he carried off the goddess. In history it is famed as the scene of the great disaster which befell the Persian ships in the expedition of Xerxes. Near it were some rocks or shoals called *Ipni* (Ἰπνοί), or the "Ovens," which in modern maps are styled Ipnous, and lie to the north of Hagios Demetrios.

Obs. In making the promontory of Sepias distinct from, and to the northwest of that of Magnesia, we have followed the maps of Cramer, Perthes, and the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. D'Anville's wonted accuracy deserts him when he makes Sepias and the Magnesian promontory one and the same. It is manifest, from the language of Herodotus (vii., 193), that they were entirely distinct, and that the former lay above the latter; for he makes the Persian fleet double the Magnesian promontory after having left that of Sepias, and the scene of their disaster in its vicinity. So, again, as regards the modern name of Sepias, Leake evidently confounds it with that of the Magnesian promontory, erring with D'Anville, as his map shows, in making the two premontories the same.

10. GULFS AND BAYS.

(A.) On the Western Side of Greece.

I. Sinus Ambracius, between Epirus and Acarnania, now the Gulf of Arta. Scylax calls it the Bay of Anactorium, and observes that the distance from its mouth to the farthest extremity was one hundred and twenty stadia, while the entrance was scarcely four stadia broad. The entrance of this gulf resembles the passage called the Sleeve, at the entrance of the Baltic. On the southern side of the straits was the city and promontory of Actium, the scene of the great naval action be-

tween Octavianus and Antony, Sept. 2, B.C. 31, and which decided the fate of the Roman world.

II. Sinus Corinthiacus, now Gulf of Lepanto or Corinth, an arm of the sea running in between the northern shore of the Peloponnesus and the coasts of Ætolia, Phocis, and Bœotia. It formed, also, several small bays or inlets along these coasts, the most important of which was the Sinus Crissæus, or Gulf of Salona. The victory of Don John of Austria, in 1571, over the Turkish fleet, has immortalized the name of the Gulf of Lepanto in modern history.

III. Sinus Cyparissius, an extensive gulf off the coast of Elis, extending from the Pheia Promontorium in the north to the Cyparissium Promontorium in the south. Pliny makes it seventy-two miles in circumference. It is now the Gulf of Arcadia. The ancient name was derived from the town of Cyparissia, at the lower extremity.

(B.) On the Southern Side.

I. Sinus Messēniācus, on the southern coast of Messenia, and running some distance up into the land. It extended from the promontory of Acritas on the west to that of Thyrides on the southeast. It is now the Gulf of Coron, and is so called from the modern town of Coron, near the site of the ancient Colonides, on its western shore. Another ancient name was the Sinus Asinæus, from the town of Asine, a little above the promontory of Acritas.

II. Sinus Laconicus, on the southern coast of Laconia, from the promontory of Tanarum to that of Onugnathus. It was sometimes called Gytheates Sinus, from the town of Gythium at its head. The modern name is the Gulf of Colokythia. Pliny makes it one hundred and six miles in circuit, and thirtynine in width.

III. Sinus Bæaticus, to the east of the preceding, between the promontory of Onugnathus and that of Malea. Its ancient name was derived from the town of Bæa, at its southeastern extremity. It is now the Gulf of Vathika.

(C.) On the Eastern Side.

I. Sinus Argölicus, on the coast of Argolis, and washing also a part of the eastern shore of Laconia. It is now the Gulf of

Nauplia or Napoli, which latter is the more correct appellation, and is derived from Napoli di Romania, the ancient Nauplia.

II. Sinus Sarōnicus, between Argolis and Attica, and having the territories of Corinthia and Megaris at its head. At its mouth it extends from the promontory of Scyllæum to that of Sunium. It is now the Gulf of Engia, from the modern name of Egina, which island lies about the centre of it. The ancient name, according to Pliny, is derived from the old Greek word $\sigma a \rho \omega \nu i \varsigma$, "an oak," the shores of this gulf having at one time been covered with groves of oak.

III. Sinus Opuntius, on the coast of the Locri Opuntii, and washing a portion of the northeastern shore of Bœotia. It is now the Gulf of Talanta, from the modern name of the island of Atalanta, lying in it near the shore.

IV. Sinus Maliacus, between the coast of Thessaly to the north and that of Phocis to the south. It is now the Gulf of Zeitoun, from a neighboring town of that name. The ancient appellation was derived from the Malians ($Ma\lambda\iota\epsilon\iota_{\varsigma}$), who occupied a large portion of the shores of this gulf on the west. On the lower shore of the Sinus Maliacus was the famous pass of Thermopylæ.

V. Sinus Pagasæus, on the coast of Thessaly, to the northeast of the preceding, and now the Gulf of Volo. The ancient name is derived from Pagasæ, the ancient port of Iolcos, at its upper extremity. The modern appellation comes from the town of Volo, near the ancient Iolcos. This bay was also called, anciently, Pagaseticus Sinus and Pagasites Sinus.

11. Adjacent Seas.

I. Mare Ionium, or Ionian Sea, lying along the western shores of Greece, and of which the Ionicus Sinus formed a part, answering at one time to the Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice. Consult page 269, Obs.

II. Mare Siculum, or Sicilian Sea, that portion of the Mare Ionium which adjoins Sicily.

III. Mare Libycum, or Libyan Sea, the sea which washed the southern coast of the Peloponnesus, and which took its name from the great Libyan or African continent, which it served to separate from Greece.

IV. Mare Creticum, or the Cretan Sea, dividing Greece from the celebrated island of Crete.

V. Mare Ægæum, or Ægean Sea, that portion of the Mediterranean which was bounded on the north by Macedonia and Thrace, on the west by Greece, on the east by Asia Minor, and which was comprised between the 41st and 36th degrees of lati-The modern name is the Archipelago, a corruption manifestly of the ancient Alyalov Πέλαγος. The origin of this ancient appellation is altogether doubtful. Strabo thinks it probable that it was derived from Ægæ, a city of Eubœa, on the inner coast, and about midway between Chalcis and the upper extremity of the island. Others, more fabulously, derive the name from Ægæa, a queen of the Amazons, who perished in this sea; or from Ægeus, the father of Theseus, who threw himself into it. Others, again, derive it from alyle, "a squall," from the violent and sudden storms which render it dangerous to sailors even in the present improved state of nautical science. This sea contains numerous islands, many of which are undoubtedly of volcanic origin. Of these, the more southern are divided into two groups: one called the Sporades, or scattered islands, lying along the coasts of Caria and Ionia; the other called the Cyclades, or circling islands, lying off the coast of Attica and the Peloponnesus, from which they were separated by the Myrtoan Sea, and occupying a large portion of the southern Ægean. Another part of the Ægean, lying about Icaria, one of the Sporades, was called the Icarian The northern part of the Ægean contains fewer but larger islands; the principal of these were Chios, Lesbos, Lemnos, Thasos, and Eubea. At the northeast corner it communicated with the Propontis, now the Sea of Marmara, by the narrow strait called Hellespontus, now the Dardanelles. The Turks call the Archipelago the White Sea, to distinguish it from the Black Sea or Euxine.

V. Mare Myrtoum, or Myrtoan Sea, the part of the Ægean between Attica and the Peloponnesus on one side, and the Cyclades on the other, and extending from the lower extremity of Eubœa to the promontory of Malea, now Cape St. Angelo, at the southeastern extremity of Laconia. It is said to have derived its name from the island of Myrtos, lying to the west of the southern extremity of Eubœa.

12. GRÆCIA MÖRE IN DETAIL.

1. THESSALIA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Early traditions, preserved by the Greek poets and other writers, ascribe to Thessaly the more ancient names of *Pyrrha*, *Æmonia*, and *Æolis*. The two former of these belong to the age of mythology; the latter refers to that remote period when the plains of Thessaly were inhabited by the Æolian Pelasgi, previous to the occupation of any part of it by the Thessalians.

II. The Thessalians, according to Herodotus, came originally from Thesprotia in Epirus, and from them the country we are now describing derived its future name. At what time, however, it received this appellation can not be determined. It does not occur in the poems of Homer, from whom we derive our earliest information about this part of Greece, although the several principalities of which it was composed at the time of the Trojan war are there enumerated, together with the different chiefs by whom they were governed.

III. Thessaly was bounded on the north by the chain called *Olympus* and the *Cambunian* Mountains, which separated it from *Macedonia*; on the west by the chain of Mount *Pindus*, separating it from *Epirus*; on the east by the *Ægean Sea*; and on the south by the chain of Mount *Œta*.

(B.) ASPECT AND PRODUCTIVENESS OF THE COUNTRY.

I. It seems to have been the general opinion of antiquity, founded on very early traditions, that the great basin of Thessaly, formed by the mountain chains just mentioned, was at some remote period covered by the waters of the Peneus and its tributary rivers, until some great convulsion of nature had rent asunder the gorge of Tempe; and thus afforded a passage to the pent-up streams. This opinion, which was first reported by Herodotus, in his account of the celebrated march of Xerxes, is again repeated by Strabo, who observes, in confirmation of it, that the Peneus, in his time, was still exposed to frequent inundations, and also that the land of Thessaly is higher toward the sea than toward the more central parts.

II. The plains of Thessaly were among the most fertile and productive in Greece in wine, oil, and grain, but more especially in grain, of which a considerable quantity was exported. The Thessalians consequently became very rich, and luxurious in their mode of life; and so notorious were they for it, that they were charged with having encouraged the Persians to invade Greece, with a view of rivalling them in sensuality and extravagance. Thessaly was also famous for its cavalry, who were the best in Greece; its plains supplying not only ample room for exercise, but also abundance of forage for horses.

III. The lands of Thessaly were not cultivated by the Thessalians themselves, but by a subject population, the *Penesta*. The account given of them is, that they were the descendants of the Æolian Bœotians, who did not emigrate when their country was conquered by the Thessalians, but surrendered themselves to the conquerors, on condition that they should remain in the country, and cultivate the land for the new owners of the soil, paying, by way of rent, a portion of its produce. Many of them were richer than their lords. They sometimes accompanied their masters to battle, and fought on horseback as their vassals. They formed a considerable portion of the population, and frequently attempted to emancipate themselves.

(C.) SKETCH OF THESSALIAN HISTORY.

I. The earliest information about the history of Thessaly is given by Homer (II., ii., 710), who describes the country as divided into several independent principalities and kingdoms, and enumerates the chiefs, as before remarked, to whom they were subject at the time of the Trojan war. This arrangement, however, was not of long continuance, and a new constitution, dating probably from that epoch, was adopted, as it would seem, by the common consent of the different states. They agreed to unite in one confederate body, under a president or Tagus, elected by the members of the confederacy.

II. It does not, however, seem that this confederation was productive of any great benefit to the country; for, except during a very short period, under Jason of Pheræ, Thessaly never assumed that rank among the states of Greece to which it was by its position and extent entitled. Many of the cities, moreover, were from time to time in the power of usurpers, or under the sway of powerful families, so that the nation had no means of acting as a body. One remarkable instance of this occurred at the time of the Persian war, when the Thessalian house of the Aleuadæ, the princes of Larissa, either because they thought their power insecure, or with a view to increase it by becoming vassals to the Persian king, invited Xerxes to the conquest of Greece.

III. After the Persian invasion, the Greek historians take little notice of the affairs of Thessaly, except on the occasion of the expedition undertaken by the Athenians for the purpose of reinstating Orestes, son of Echecratidas, a king of Thessaly, as Thucydides (i., 111) calls him, who had been banished from his country. The Athenian general Myronides marched on that occasion as far as Pharsalus, but he was checked in his progress by the Thessalians, who were superior in cavalry, and was forced to retire without having accomplished the objects of his expedition.

IV. In the Peloponnesian war, the Thessalians did not, as a nation, take any part, though several of the towns were in favor of the Athenians, between whom and the Thessalians there was an old alliance. In B.C. 394, the Thessalians were in league with the Bœoţians and their allies, who had formed a hostile confederacy against Sparta. The Spartans thought it necessary to recall from Asia their great commander Agesilaus, and on his way home he had to march through Thessaly. The Thessalians, with their cavalry, endeavored to harass and obstruct him on his march. His skillful manœuvres, however, thwarted their designs, and Agesilaus gained considerable credit by defeating on their own ground, with horsemen of his own training, the most renowned cavalry of Greece.

V. While Sparta, however, was struggling to make head against the formidable coalition of which Bœotia had taken the lead, Thessaly was acquiring a degree of importance and weight among the states of Greece which it had

never possessed in any former period of its history. This was effected, apparently, solely by the energy and ability of Jason, who, from being chief or tyrant of Pheræ, had risen to the rank of Tagus, or commander of the Thessalian states. By his influence and talents the confederacy received the accession of several important cities; and an imposing military force, amounting to eight thousand cavalry, more than twenty thousand heavy infantry, and light troops sufficient, as Xenophon observes, to oppose the world, had been raised and fitted by him for the service of the commonwealth. His other resources being equally effective, Thessaly seemed destined, under his direction, to become the leading power of Greece. We may estimate the influence that he had already acquired from the circumstance of his having been called upon to act as mediator between the Bæotians and Spartans after the battle of Leuctra.

VI. This brilliant period of political influence and power was, however, of short duration, as Jason not long after lost his life by the hand of an assassin, during the celebration of some games he had instituted; and Thessaly, on his death, relapsed into that state of weakness and insignificance from which it had so lately emerged. The Thessalians, finding themselves unable to defend their liberties, continually threatened by the tyrants of Pheræ, successors of Jason, first sought the protection of the Bæctians, who sent to their aid a body of troops commanded by the brave Pelopidas. They next applied for assistance to Philip of Macedon, who succeeded in defeating, and finally expelling, these oppressors of their country; and by the important services thus rendered to the Thessalians, secured their lasting attachment to his interests, and finally obtained the presidency of the Amphictyonic council.

VII. Under the skillful management of Philip, the troops of Thessaly became a most important addition to the resources he already possessed, and to this powerful re-enforcement may probably be attributed the success which attended his campaign against the Bœotians and Athenians. On the death of Philip, the states of Thessaly, in order to testify their veneration for his memory, issued a decree, by which they confirmed to his son Alexander the supreme station which he had held in their councils, and also signified their intention of supporting his claims to the title of commander-in-chief of the whole Grecian confederacy.

VIII. The long absence of Alexander, while engaged in distant conquests, subsequently afforded his enemies an opportunity of detaching the Thessalians from his interests; and the Lamiac war, which was chiefly sustained by that people against his generals Antipater and Craterus, had nearly proved fatal to the Macedonian influence, not only in Thessaly, but over the whole continent of Greece. By the conduct and ability of Antipater, however, the contest was brought to a successful issue, and Thessaly was preserved to the Macedonian crown until the reign of Philip, son of Demetrius, from whom it was wrested by the Romans after the victory of Cynoscephalæ.

IX. All Thessaly was now declared free and independent by a decree of the senate and people, but from that time it may be fairly considered as having passed under the dominion of Rome, though its possession was still disputed by Antiochus, and again by Perseus the son of Philip. Thessaly was already a Roman province when the fate of the empire of the world was decided in the plains of Pharsalus.

(D.) DIVISION OF THE COUNTRY.

I. According to Strabo, Thessaly was divided into four dis-

tricts, distinguished by the names of *Phthiōtis*, *Hestiæōtis*, *Thessaliōtis*, and *Pelasgiōtis*.

II. As this arrangement of Strabo, however, appears to omit some districts which are more commonly known in history by different names, the following nomenclature of the Thessalian cantons appears decidedly preferable, and we will proceed to describe them in the order in which they are here placed: 1. Hestiwotis. 2. Pelasgiotis, including the country of the Perrhabi. 3. Phthiotis. 4. Dolŏpia. 5. Magnēsia. 6. Malienses. 7. Æniānes.

1. HESTIÆOTIS.

I. Hesticotis, according to Strabo, was that portion of Thessaly which lay near Pindus, and between that mountain chain and Macedonia. This description applies to the upper valley of the Peneus, and the lateral valleys which descend into it from the north and west. The same writer elsewhere informs us, that, according to some authorities, this district was originally the country of the Dorians, who certainly are stated by Herodotus and others to have once occupied the regions of Pindus, but that afterward it took the name of Hesticotis, from a district in Eubea so called, whose inhabitants were transplanted into Thessaly by the Perrhæbi.

II. The most northern part of Hestiæotis was possessed by the Æthīces, a tribe of uncertain but ancient origin, since they are mentioned by Homer, who states that the Centaurs, when expelled by Pirithous from Mount Pelion, withdrew to the Æthices. Marsyas, a writer cited by Stephanus Byzantinus, describes the Æthices as a most daring race of barbarians, whose object was robbery and plunder.

III. Mount *Pindus*, in this district, has already been described in general terms (page 471). This mountain range, striking off nearly southward from the southern face of Olympus, formed the boundary between Thessaly and Epirus, and separated the waters falling into the Ionian Sea and Ambracian Gulf from those streams which discharged themselves into the Ægean. The most frequented passage from northern Epirus into Thessaly appears to have led over that part of the chain of Pindus called *Mons Cercetius*, and which was near the sources of the *Aous*. The modern Mount *Zygos*, or else that of *Ian Cantara*, in its immediate neighborhood, appears to indicate the ancient Mons Cercetius.

PLACES IN HESTIÆOTIS.

1. Phaleria or Phaloria, the first town which presented itself on entering Thessaly by Mount Cercetius. It was captured and burned by Flamininus. Its site coincides, according to Leake, with that of the modern Ardham. 2. Pialia, to the northwest of the preceding, now Sklatina, according to Leake. Cramer, however, says its ruins are still called Piali. 3. Æginium, according to Leake, to the northwest of Phaleria, and now Stagous, or, as the Turks call it, Kalabachi. Cramer,

on the other hand, places it to the southeast of Phaleria, near the modern *Mocossi*. Leake's opinion appears the more correct Livy describes Æginium as a place of very great strength. 4. Gomphi, according to Cramer and others, some distance to the southeast of Phaleria, and near the left bank of the Peneus; but, according to Leake and Kiepert, near the River Pamisus, toward its source, and in the southwestern angle of the eountry, not far from the passes leading to Ambracia. It was a place of considerable strength, and regarded as the key of Thessaly on the side of Epirus. Cæsar describes it as a large and opulent city. Cramer makes it correspond to the modern Stagous; but Leake, more correctly, to Episcopi, an insulated height near Rapsista. 5. Tricca, to the southeast of Phaleria, according to Cramer; but, according to Leake, to the southwest of it. It was situate on the Lethæus, a small tributary of the Peneus, and possessed a temple of Æsculapius, which was held in great veneration. Close to the Lethæus Æsculapius was said to have been born. The modern Triccala answers, in all probability, to the ancient Tricea. 6. Metropolis, to the northeast of Tricca, according to Cramer. It must not be confounded with another place of the same name in Dolopia. Leake places the former near the modern Turnavo.

2. PELASGIOTIS.

I. According to Strabo, the lower valley of the Peneus, as far as the sea, had been first occupied by the Perrhæbi, an abeient tribe apparently of Pelasgic origin. On the northern bank of the great Thessalian river, they had peopled also the mountainous tract bordering on the Macedonian districts of Elimiotis and Pieria, while to the south they stretched along the base of Mount Ossa, as far as the shores of the Lake Bæbeïs. These possessions were, however, in course of time, wrested from them by the Lapithæ, another Pelasgic nation, whose original abode seems to have been in the vales of Ossa and the Magnesian district. Yielding to these more powerful invaders, the greater part of the Perrhæbi retired, as Strabo informs us, toward Dolopia and the ridge of Pindus; but some still occupied the valleys of Olympus, while those who remained in the plains became incorporated with the Lapithæ, under the common name of Pelasgiotæ.

II. The territory occupied by the Perrhæbi seems to have been situated chiefly in the valley of the River Titaresius, now, according to Leake, the Elasonitiko. Cramer makes the Titaresius to be now the Saranta Poros (Sarandáforo), but this is merely the modern name of one of its branches. Around the upper part of the course pursued by this river lay a peculiar district called Tripolis, from its containing three principal towns, Pythium, Doliche, and Azōrus, and which was connected with Macedonia by a narrow defile over the Cambunian Mountains. This was the pass of Volustana, now Volutza, already alluded to (page 445).

III. The two principal passes which led over Mount Olympus into the territory of the Perrhæbi were those of Callipeuce and Petra. The former was the one by which the Roman army under Q. Marcius made their perilous march into Macedonia. The latter led to Pythium in Thessaly by the back of Olympus, and was commanded by the fortress of Petra. Nothing can more strongly show the importance of this latter pass than the many occasions on which it is noticed in connection with the military operations of the ancients.

PLACES IN PELASGIÕTIS.

Commencing with the district of *Tripolitis*, we have, 1. *Pythium*, which appears to have stood exactly at the foot of Olympus, as well from its having been the point from which Xenagoras, a geometrician and poet, measured the perpendicular height of Olympus, as from its having been in the road across the mountain by Petra. Its name was derived from a temple of Apollo Pythius, in whose honor games were here celebrated. 2. *Doliche*, the second city of Tripolitis, to the southwest of Pythium. Its site corresponds to the village of *Duklista*. 3. *Azōrus*, to the southwest of Doliche, and the third city of Tripolitis. Leake places it at *Vuvala*. To the east of Azorus, and near the base of Olympus, some geographers place a city named *Bodōna* or *Dodona Thessalica*. The actual existence of such a place, however, has been disproved by Leake.

Leaving Tripolitis, and proceeding to the southeast, we come to, 1. Eudiërum, a fortress answering now to Konispoli, and lying beyond the Lake Ascuris, now Mavro Limne, or Ezero. 2. Gonnus, to the southeast of the preceding. According to Livy, it was twenty miles from Larissa, and close to the entrance of the gorge of Tempe. It was strongly fortified by Perseus in his first campaign against the Romans, and became one of the keys of Macedonia. Hawkins is wrong in placing it on the right bank of the Peneus; it stood on the left, or Olympian, side of the river.

The beautiful Vale of Tempe, which has already been alluded to (page 481), may here be more particularly noticed. It lies between Mount Olympus on the north and Ossa on the south, and is traversed throughout its whole length by the River Peneus in a gentle course. Tempe is five miles in length, and is often so narrow as to afford room only for the river and a caravan to travel side by side. It is, in fact, a narrow, rocky defile, inclosed on each side by lofty and perpendicular heights, and is, as its name indicates, a cleft or chasm between Olympus and Ossa. The ancients in general believed that the gorge of Tempe was caused by some great convulsion of nature, which burst asunder the great mountain barrier by which the waters that covered the plains of Thessaly in early days were pent up, and thus afforded them an egress to the sea. The

Greeks and Romans frequently allude to the beautiful scenery of Tempe, and Ælian, in particular, has left a glowing description of it. Modern travellers, also, are loud in its praise. Tempe is now called by the modern Greeks Lycostomo; by the Turks, Bogaz, this latter word signifying, in the Turkish language, a pass or strait.

3. Elatia, according to Cramer, to the southwest of Gonnus; whereas Leake places it to the south, and on the other side of the Peneus. It was occupied by Perseus in his first campaign against the Romans. 4. Gyrton or Gyrtone, in the angle between the Titaresius and Peneus, and, according to Leake, answering to the modern Tatari. It was probably the same with the city of the Phlegyæ, mentioned by Homer. This place is frequently alluded to in the account of the wars between the Macedonians and Romans. 5. Phalanna, north of Gyrton, and beyond the Titaresius. Its ruins, according to Leake, are on a height above the village of Karadjoli. Cramer, less accurately, places Phalanna to the west of Gyrton, and makes it answer to Turnavo. 6. Larissa, to the southeast of Gyrton, and on the right bank of the Peneus. It was one of the most ancient and flourishing cities of Thessaly, and still retains its name and position. The appellation Larissa was peculiar to the Pelasgi, and wherever it is found in the ancient world it indicates a Pelasgic settlement. Some writers have supposed that Homer means Larissa by his Argos Pelasgicum, but, as Leake remarks, the Argos Pelasgicum of the poet appears to be, not a city, but a district. Larissa stood in a very fertile part of the country, but still its territory was subject to great losses by the inundations of the Peneus. The Aleuadæ, mentioned by Herodotus as princes of Thessaly at the time of the Persian invasion, were natives of this city.

7. Atrax, according to Cramer, to the southwest of Larissa, and on the right bank of the Peneus; but, according to Leake, to the northwest, and answering now to Gunitza. Atrax was only ten Roman miles from Larissa. It was famed for its green marble, known by the name of Atracium Marmor. 8. Cranon or Crannon, to the southeast of Atrax, and one of the most ancient and considerable towns of this part of Thessaly. Its site is near the modern Hadjilar. Near Cranon was a spring, which possessed, according to Theophrastus, the property of warming wine when mixed with it, and keeping it warm for two or three days. 9. Scotussa, to the southeast of the preced-

ing, and often noticed by ancient authors. It was a short distance to the northwest of Pheræ, and was on one occasion treacherously occupied and plundered by Alexander, the tyrant of that place. Its ruins are near the modern Supli. Within the territory of Scotussa were the heights of Cynoscephala, famous for the victory gained there by the consul T. Quintius Flamininus over Philip, king of Macedonia, B.C. 197. Pheræ, to the southwest of the Lake Bæbeïs. Cramer's map less correctly places it near the lake's southern extremity. site answers in part to that of the modern Velestino. Pheræ was one of the most ancient and important cities of Thessaly, and the capital of Admetus in the heroic age. At a later period, Jason, a native of Pheræ, became master not only of his own city, but nearly the whole of Thessaly. It came not long after into the power of another tyrant, Alexander, the same into whose hands Pelopidas fell. It passed subsequently to the Macedonian rule. Strabo says that the constant tyranny under which this city labored hastened its decay. The fountains of Hyperēa and Messeis, celebrated by Homer and other poets, are generally supposed to have belonged to this ancient city.

3. PHTHIOTIS.

I. According to Strabo, *Phthiotis* included all the southern part of Thessaly as far as Mount Œta and the Maliac Gulf. To the west it bordered on *Dolopia*, and on the east it reached the confines of *Magnesia*. Referring to the geographical arrangement adopted by Homer, we shall find that he comprised within this extent of territory the districts of *Phthia* and *Hellas* properly so called, and, generally speaking, the dominions of Achilles, together with those of Protesilaus and Eurypylus.

II. Many of Homer's commentators have imagined that *Phthia* was not to be distinguished from the divisions of *Hellas* and *Achaia*, also mentioned by him; but other critics, as Strabo observes, were of a different opinion, and the expressions of the poet certainly lead us to adopt that notion in preference to the other. Again, it has been doubted whether, under the name of Hellas, Homer meant to designate a tract of country or a city. Those who inclined to the former opinion applied the term to that portion of Thessaly which lay between *Pharsalus* and *Thebá Phthiotica*, while those who contended for the latter identified it with the ruins of *Hellas*, in the vicinity of Pharsalus, close to the River *Enipeus* and the town of *Melitaa*.

III. The Phthiōtæ were separated apparently from the Melians by Mount Othrys, which, branching out from the chain of Pindus, closed the great basin of Thessaly to the south, and served, at the same time, to divide the waters which flowed northward into the Peneus from those received by the Sperchius. This mountain is often celebrated by the poets of antiquity. At present it is known, according to Leake, by the name of Mount Ierako. Pouqueville, however, makes it have the different appellations of Hellovo, Varibovo, and Goura.

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PLACES IN PHTHIOTIS.

1. Pharsalus, situate, according to Strabo, near the River Enipeus, and not far from its junction with the Apidanus, which afterward enters the Peneus. The Enipeus is now the Fersaliti, and the Apidanus the Vlacho Iani. Pharsalus is famous in history for the memorable battle fought in its plains between the armies of Cæsar and Pompey, in which the former was victorious. The plains, or, more correctly speaking, the territory around the city, was called Pharsalia (Φαρσαλία), whence the name of the battle. The ancient site is marked by the modern Férsala. Livy seems to make a distinction between the old and new town, since he speaks of a Palæo-Pharsalus. 2. Eretria, between Pharsalus and Pheræ, and near the modern Tzangli. To the southwest of Eretria was Mount Narthacium, now Nartakion, where Agesilaus defeated a strong body of Thessalian cavalry, who attacked him on his return from Asia Minor. Cramer places it too far to the southeast of Pharsalus. 3. Arne, a city of great antiquity, situate near Mount Titanus, which mountain Leake places near Peiresiæ, on the Enipeus, and a short distance from the junction of that river with the Peneus. Strabo affirms that Arne was founded by a colony of Bootians, who had been expelled from their country by the Pelasgi. Thucydides, on the contrary, states that the Bœotians were expelled from Arne by the Thessalians, and thus colonized Bootia, sixty years after the siege of Troy. 4. Thebæ Phthioticæ, to the east of Pharsalus, and near the shore of the Sinus Pagasaus, or Gulf of Volo. was called *Phthiotica*, to distinguish it from the Bootian city of the same name. In a military point of view its importance was great, as it commanded the avenues of Magnesia and Thessaly from its vicinity to Demetrias, Pheræ, and Pharsalus. ruins are situate on a height half a mile to the northeast of Ak-Ketjel, according to Leake.

5. Pyrāsus, a harbor on the Sinus Pagasæus, just below Pyrrha Promontorium now Ankistri, and which here terminates the coast of Phthiotis. Close to this headland were two rocks named Pyrrha and Deucalion, which preserved in their appellations the tradition of the great Thessalian deluge. 6. Demetrium, a short distance to the west of the preceding. It

took its name from a temple of Demeter or Ceres, which it contained, and must not be confounded with the celebrated city of Demetrias, which belonged to Magnesia. Proceeding along the coast in a southerly direction, we come to the River Amphrysus, celebrated by several poets of antiquity, and fabled to have been the stream on the banks of which Apollo fed the flocks of Admetus. It is now called the Armyro, from the town of that name on its left bank. Leake appears to be in error with regard to it, and to have mistaken a smaller stream for this river. 7. Alos or Halos, a little below the mouth of the Amphrysus, and founded by Athamas, whose memory was here held in the greatest veneration. This place was called *Alos* Phthioticum or Achaicum, to distinguish it from another of the same name in Locris. 8. Iton, to the west of the preceding, and on the River Cuarius or Coralius. It was celebrated for a temple of Minerva Itonis, who was also worshipped under the same name in Bœotia. Leake places the site of this city a short distance to the southwest of Armyro. 9. Phylace. placed by Leake to the northwest of Iton; by Cramer, to the southwest of Alos. It contained a temple consecrated to Protesilaus, and games were celebrated here in his honor. Its site, according to Leake, is near Ghidek. 10. Larissa Cremaste, to the south of Phylace. It was situated on the slope of a hill facing the sea, and hence was called Cremaste, as "hanging" on the side of the hill just mentioned, which formed a prolongation of Mount Othrys. This epithet served to distinguish it from the great Larissa, which stood in the midst of a plain. Larissa was the capital of the dominions of Achilles, who is hence, as some explain it, called Larissaus by Virgil. ruins of Larissa Cremaste are about five or six miles from Khamako. 11. Aphětæ, a port just below Larissa, and now Fetio. The ancient name is fabled to have been derived from the departure of the Argonauts from this place, when setting out on their Colchian expedition. Hence 'Αφεταί, from ἀφίημι. The bay itself is also called the Bay of Fetio. The promontory Posidium closes this bay to the south, now Cape Stauro. The little island of Myonnesus, just below this promontory, is now the island of Argyro.

12. Melitæa, to the southwest of Iton, at the foot of Mount Othrys, and near the River Enipeus. Strabo informs us that

its ancient name was Pyrrha, and that it boasted of possessing the tomb of Hellen, son of Deucalion. It was also affirmed that the ruins of the ancient city of Hellas were to be seen about ten stadia distant on the other side of the Enipeus. Leake places its site on a lofty hill, at the foot of which stands the small village of Keuzlar; Cramer, in the vicinity of Goura, which lies considerably south of Keuzlar. 13. Thaumaci, to the west of the preceding, and now Dhomoko. It is said to have derived its name from the singularity of its situation, and the astonishment produced on the minds of travellers upon first reaching it (Θανμακοί, from θαῦμα, "wonder"). "You arrive," says Livy, in describing it, "after a very difficult and rugged route over hill and dale, when you suddenly open on an immense plain like a vast sea, which stretches below as far as the eye can reach." The town was situated on a lofty and perpendicular rock, which rendered it a place of great strength. Dodwell says that the view from Dhomoko is one of the most wonderful and extensive that he ever beheld.

4. DOLOPIA.

I. The ancient Dolopians appear to have been early established in that southwestern angle of Thessaly formed by the chain of Pindus on one side, and Mount Othrys branching out of it on the other. By the latter mountain they were separated from the *Enianes*, who were in possession of the upper valley of the *Sperchius*, while to the west they bordered on the Phthiotæ, with whom they were connected as early as the siege of Troy. This we learn from Homer, who represents Phænix, the Dolopian leader, as accompanying Achilles thither in the double capacity of preceptor and ally.

II. Xenophon, at a later period, enumerates the Dolopians among the subjects of Jason, tyrant of Pheræ. We afterward find Dolopia a frequent subject of contention between the Ætolians, who had extended their dominion to the borders of this district, and the kings of Macedon. It was finally conquered by

Perseus, the last Macedonian monarch.

PLACES IN DOLOPIA.

These were few in number, and of little note. We may mention, 1. Ctimene or Ctemene, perhaps the most important of all. Stephanus mentions the tradition of its having been ceded by Peleus, father of Achilles, to Phænix. Livy gives the form of the name corruptly as Cymine. It is supposed to have stood near the northwestern shore of the Lake Xynias, now the Lake of Taukli, and the name Ctemeno is still attached to a site in this quarter. 2. Phalachthia, to the north-

west of Ctimene, and now Falaclia. 3. Sosthënis, to the west of the preceding, said still to retain its name, and near the sources of the River Phœnix, now the Emicassos, and a tributary of the Apidanus. 4. Metropŏlis, to the north of the preceding according to Cramer, but some distance to the northwest according to Leake. It must not be confounded with the place of the same name in Estiæotis.

5. MAGNESIA.

I. The Greeks gave the name of Magnesia to that narrow portion of Thessaly which is confined between the mouth of the Peneus and the Sinus Pagasæus to the north and south, and between the chain of Ossa and the sea on the west and east. The people of this district were called *Magnētes*, and appear to have been in possession of it from the most remote period.

II. Among the mountains in this district may be mentioned, 1. Mount Homole, the extreme point of Magnesia to the north. It was probably a portion of the chain of Ossa, and was celebrated by the poets as the abode of the ancient Centaurs and Lapithæ, and a favorite haunt of Pan. From Pausanias we learn that it was extremely fertile, and well supplied with springs and fountains. One of these was apparently the Libethrian fountain, spoken of by Pliny and Lycophron. Strabo says that Mount Homole was near the mouth of the Peneus, and Apollonius describes it as close to the sea. 2. Mount Ossa, named by the modern Greeks Kissovo, and extending from the right bank of the Peneus along the Magnesian coast to the chain of Pelion. It was supposed that Ossa and Olympus were once united, but that an earthquake had rent them asunder, thus forming, as already remarked, the vale or defile of Tempe. This locality, too, was famous in the legends of poetry, the giants, in their attempt to scale the heavens, having sought to pile Ossa upon Olympus, and Pelion upon Ossa. 3. Mount Pēlion, whose principal summit rises behind Iolcos and Ormenium, forms a chain of some extent from the southeastern extremity of the Lake Bæbeïs, where it unites with one of the ramifications of Ossa, to the extreme promontory of Magnesia. Homer alludes to this mountain as the ancient abode of the Centaurs, who were ejected by the Lapithæ. It was, however, more especially the haunt of Chiron, whose cave, as Dicæarchus relates, occupied the highest point of the mountain. Euripides and other poets speak of the forests of Pelion. On the most elevated part of the mountain was a temple dedicated to Jupiter Actaus, to which a troop of the noblest youths of the city of Demetrias ascended every year, at the rising of the dog-star, by appointment of the priest, and such was the cold experienced on the summit that they were the thickest woollen fleeces to protect themselves from the inclemency of the weather. Leake makes the modern name of Pelion Mount Plessidhi.

PLACES IN MAGNESIA.

1. Homolium, at the foot of Mount Homole, and on the right bank of the Peneus. It stood probably near the modern Fteri, where is now the convent of St. Demetrius. 2. Myræ, below the mouth of the Peneus, mentioned by Scylax. 3. Euryměnæ, below the preceding, and also on the coast. 4. Rhizus, south

of the preceding, and on the coast. Its ruins are a little to the south of Cape Pozi, and close to the village of that name. 5. Melibæa, on the coast, a little to the south, and assigned by Homer to Philoctetes. Livy places it at the base of Mount Ossa, in that part which stretches toward the plains of Thessaly above Demetrias. Leake fixes its site at a place called Castri, not far beyond Dhematá, where now exists only a monastery of St. John Theologus. 6. Lacerea, to the northwest of the preceding, and close to the shores of the Lake Bœbeïs. It was the birth-place of the nymph Coronis, the mother of Æsculapius. The Lake Bæbeis is now the Lake of Carla. 7. Amyrus, southwest of Melibera, and on a river of the same name. 8. Casthanæa, on the coast below Melibea, and noticed by Herodotus in his account of the storm experienced by the fleet of Xerxes off this coast. According to some, the chestnut (castanea), a tree still abounding on the eastern side of Pelion, derived its appellation from the name of this town, in Greek and The truth, however, is probably the other way, that the town took its name from the tree. Leake makes the modern name Port Tamukhari.

9. Thaumăcia, to the south of Casthanea, and belonging to the dominions of Philoctetes. It must not be confounded with Thaumaci of Phthiotis. 10. Magnēsia, supposed to have been situated in the lower part of the peninsula, near the Pagasæan gulf. Cramer places it too high up. Leake makes it correspond to the modern Argalasti. 11. Orměnium, on the upper part of the Pagasean gulf, and northwest of the preceding. It was an ancient city, and is mentioned by Homer. It was said by some to have been the birth-place of Phænix, the preceptor of Achilles. It sank in importance after the founding of Demetrias, from which it was only twenty-seven stadia distant. 12. Iolcos, a short distance to the northwest, and a city of great antiquity. It was celebrated in the heroic age as the birthplace of Jason and his ancestors. Pindar places it at the foot of Mount Pelion, and near the small river Anaurus, in which Jason is said to have lost his sandal. The place was ruined by the founding of Demetrias in its immediate vicinity. In Strabo's time the town no longer existed, but the neighboring shore still retained the name of Iolcos. 13. Pagasa, the port of Iolcos, and afterward of Pheræ. It was said by some to have

derived its name from the circumstance of the Argo's having been built here (Παγασαί, from πήγνυμι); but Strabo is of opinion that it rather owed its appellation to the numerous springs which were found in its vicinity (Παγασαί, from παγαί). Its site is nearly occupied by the present castle of Volo. Pagasæ gave name to the Sinus Pagasæus, now the Gulf of Volo. 14. Demetrias, a short distance to the northwest of Pagasæ, and deriving its name from Demetrius Poliorcetes, who founded it about 290 B.C. It derived its population in the first instance, as Strabo reports, from the neighboring towns of Nelia, Pagasæ, Ormenium, Rhizus, Sepias, Olizon, &c., all which were finally included within its territory. It soon became one of the most flourishing towns of Thessaly, and, in a military point of view, was allowed to rank among the principal fortresses of Greece. It was, in fact, most advantageously placed for defending the approaches to the defile of Tempe, as well on the side of the plains as on that of the mountains. Its maritime situation also, both from its proximity to the island of Eubœa, Attica, and the Peloponnesus, the Cyclades, and the opposite shores of Asia, rendered it a most important acquisition to the sovereigns of Macedonia. Hence Philip, the son of Demetrius, is said to have termed it one of the chains of Greece. Demetrias, according to Leake, occupied the southern or maritime face of a height now called Goritza, which projects from the coast of Magnesia, between two and three miles to the southward of the middle of Volo.

6. MALIENSES.

I. The Malians, of Μηλιεῖς, as they are called by Attic writers, or Malians, Malieῖς, according to the Doric form, which was doubtless their own dialect, were the most southern tribe belonging to Thessaly. They occupied principally the shores of the gulf to which they communicated their name, the Sinus Maliacus, now the Gulf of Zeitoun, and extended as far as the narrowest part of the Straits of Thermopylæ, and to the valley of the Sperchius, a little above its entrance into the sea.

II. According to Herodotus, their country was chiefly flat. In some parts the plains were extensive, in others narrow, being confined on one side by the Malian Gulf, and toward the land by the lofty and inaccessible mountains of Trachinia.

III. Thucydides divides the Melians into three different tribes, which he names Paralii, Hierenses, and Trachinii. The first were so called from their dwelling along the sea-coast, the last from their being the occupants of the Trachinian district. The Hierenses are supposed to have been priest-nobles.

PLACES AMONG THE MALIENSES.

1. Anticyra, at the mouth of the Sperchius, and famed for its hellebore, so much recommended by the ancient physicians as a cure for insanity. It must not be confounded with another Anticyra, which also produced hellebore, situate in Phocis, on the Sinus Corinthiacus. The River Sperchius has already been mentioned (page 481). 2. Lamia, to the northwest of the preceding, about thirty stadia from the Sperchius, and one of the most considerable of the Malian cities. It is celebrated in history as the principal scene of the war which was carried on between the Macedonians under Antipater, and the Athenians with other confederate Greeks, commanded by Leosthenes; from which circumstance it is generally known by the name of the Lamiac war. Antipater, having been defeated in the first instance, retired to Lamia, where he was besieged by the allies; but he afterward contrived to escape from this place, and retire to the north of Thessaly. The site of Lamia is supposed to correspond to the modern Zeitoun, which, as already remarked, gives name now to the ancient Sinus Maliacus.

On crossing the Sperchius we enter into the Trachinian district, which took its name from, 3. The town of Trachis or Trachin, known to Homer, and assigned by him to Achilles, together with the whole of the Melian territory. It was here that Hercules retired after having committed an involuntary murder, as we learn from Sophocles, who has made it the scene of one of his deepest tragedies. The town took its name from the rugged and mountainous character of the country. 4. Heraclēa Trachinia, about six stadia to the east of Trachis. According to Thucydides, the Lacedæmonians, in the sixth year of the Peloponnesian war, B.C. 426, at the request of the Trachinians, who were harassed by the mountaineers of Œta, sent a colony into their country. These, jointly with the Trachinians, built a town, to which the name of Heraclea was given, distant about sixty stadia from Thermopylæ, and twenty from the sea. It became in time a flourishing city, especially under the Ætolians, who sometimes held their general council within its walls. The vestiges of this city may still be traced on a high flat on the roots of Mount Œta.

Leaving Heraclea, we come to the celebrated defile of Ther-

mopyla, formed by a morass of the sea on one side, and the cliffs of Mount Œta on the other. The word Thermopylæ (Θερμαὶ Πύλαι, "Warm Gates or Pass") denotes both the narrowness of the defile, and also the vicinity of certain warm springs. In the immediate vicinity of Anthēla, the northern slope of the mighty and prolonged ridge of Œta approached so close to the Maliac Gulf, or, at least, to an inaccessible morass which formed the edge of the gulf, as to leave no more than one single wheel-track between. This narrow entrance formed the western gate of Thermopylæ. At some little distance, seemingly about a mile to the eastward, the same close conjunction between the mountain and the sea was repeated, thus forming the eastern gate of Thermopylæ, not far from the first town of the Locrians, called Alpēni. The space between these two gates was wider and more open, but it was distinguished, and is still distinguished, by its abundant flow of thermal springs, salt and sulphureous. This copious supply of mineral water spread its mud and deposited its crust over all the adjacent ground; and the Phocians had designedly endeavored so to conduct the water as to render the pass utterly impracticable, at the same time building a wall across it, near to the western gate. They had done this in order to keep off the attacks of the Thessalians. It was at Thermopylæ that Leonidas and his little band of heroes withstood the attack of the immense host of Xerxes, and nobly died in defending the pass. The Greeks stationed themselves at the wall erected by the Phocians, and were only overcome when a body of Persians had got in their rear by a circuitous path over the mountains. The name of this path, as well as that of this part of the mountain itself, was Anopæa. The modern name of Œta is Katavothra. highest summit, according to Livy, was named Callidromus. It was occupied by Cato with a body of troops in the battle fought at the Pass of Thermopylæ between the Romans under Acilius Glabrio, and the army of Antiochus; and, owing to this manœuvre, the latter was entirely routed. At the present day, Œta and Sperchius form the boundary of the new kingdom of Greece in this quarter; but the whole face of the country has undergone a considerable change since the days of Leonidas. Thermopylæ no longer exists as a pass, and, were it not for the hot springs, it could not be identified with the ancient place. The sea, instead of bordering the defile, is now at a distance of three or four miles from it

7. ÆNIANES.

I. The *Eniānes* or *Eniēnes* were a Thessalian tribe, apparently of great antiquity, but of uncertain origin, whose frequent migrations have been alluded to by more than one writer of antiquity, but by none more than Plutarch in his Greek Questions. He states that they occupied, in the first instance, the Dorian Plain; after which they wandered to the borders of Epirus, and finally settled in the upper valley of the Sperchius.

II. Their antiquity and importance are attested by the fact of their belonging to the Amphictyonic council. At a later period we find them joining other Grecian communities against Macedonia, in the confederacy which gave rise to the Lamiac war. But in Strabo's time they had nearly disappeared, having been exterminated, as that author reports, by the Ætolians and Athamānes, upon whose territories they bordered.

PLACES AMONG THE ÆNIANES.

1. Hypāta, their principal town, on a rising ground or slope a little distance from the lower bank of the Sperchius. Leake makes its site correspond to that of the modern Neopatra, called by the Turks Badrajik. Cramer places it at Castritza, in the vicinity of Neopatra. The women of Hypata were famed for their skill in magic. 2. Sperchiæ, as its name implies, was situated near the Sperchius, and was taken and plundered by the Ætolians. Cramer places it to the northwest of Hypata, on the other side of the stream.

Mount *Tymphrestus*, from which the Sperchius was said to derive its source, closed the valley of the Ænianes to the west, and thus separated them from the *Athamānes* and the small district of *Aperantia*. The modern name of this mountain is, according to Leake, *Velukhi*.

2. ACARNANIA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDABIES.

I. The Acarnanians (᾿Ακαρνᾶνες) are never mentioned by Homer, though their neighbors and brethren, the Ætolians, are; and this would tend to prove that the name of Acarnanians, as the name of a people, is not so old as the time of Homer. They belonged probably, at least in part, to an old and widely-diffused race called the Leleges, and, by gradual intermixture with Hellenic stock, became, to a certain extent, a Greek people. In the course of time they formed a kind of union and civil polity, which Aristotle thought worth describing; but his work is lost.

II. Acarnania was bounded on the west and southwest by the *Mare Ionium*, or Ionian Sea; on the north by the *Sinus Ambracius*, or Gulf of *Arta*; on the northeast by the territories of the *Agræi* and *Amphilochi*.

The eastern boundary is not so easy to determine. In the time of Thucydides, it extended east of the River *Achelōus*, and encroached upon the territory which seemed the property of the Ætolians. Under the Romans, however, or somewhat earlier, the Achelous was made the dividing line.

III. Acarnania finally became part of the Roman province of Epirus. Its modern name is *Carlelia* or *Carnia*, the latter being an evident corruption of the ancient name.

IV. As the history of the Agræi and Amphilochi is chiefly connected with that of Acarnania, we may include them in the description of this country.

(B.) ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY, &c.

I. Acarnania, like Ætolia, was a mountainous land, but its hills, clothed with thick forests, were less lofty and rugged. The valleys of both countries contained extensive lakes, surrounded by rich pastures. Modern travellers in like manner represent the interior as covered with forests, and mountains of no great elevation, but wild and deserted, while the valleys are still filled with several lakes.

II. The Acarnanians, like the Ætolians, were a semi-bar-barous people, who possessed none of the taste and refinement which belonged to the more civilized portion of the Grecian race. Thucydides testifies that in his time they still retained much of the rude and primitive mode of living which generally prevailed in the earliest period of Grecian history.

(C.) SKETCH OF ACARNANIAN HISTORY.

I. Thucyddes (who wrote during the Peloponnesian war, which commenced B.C. 431) is the earliest extant writer that gives us any exact information about a people called Acarnanians, inhabiting the country which we have called Acarnania. The Acarnanian confederacy is first presented to our notice as leagued with Athens in the Peloponnesian war. The motive which seems to have brought about this alliance was principally the enmity subsisting between the Acarnanians and the republic of Ambracia.

II. The Acarnanians proved valuable allies to the Athenians in this struggle, successfully opposing a formidable invasion of the Ambraciots and Peloponnesians, and effectually checking all the efforts of the Lacedæmonians in this quarter. At a subsequent period, however, their country was ravaged by Agesilaus, king of Sparta, and the Acarnanians were compelled to sue for peace.

III. From this period little is known of the Acarnanian republic, until the affairs of Greece became blended with Roman politics. We find, however, that it suffered considerably from a coalition formed by Alexander of Epirus and the Ætolians. Polybius states that on this occasion the Acarnanians lost several towns, which were divided between the two conspiring parties. Indeed, as the Ætolians increased in power and importance, they became more formidable and troublesome neighbors to the Acarnanians; and the latter were frequently compelled to apply for succour to the Achæans, and to Philip, the second king of Macedon.

IV. It was their attachment and fidelity to the house of Macedon, and their hatred of the Ætolians, which caused them to reject the overtures of Q. Flamininus, the Roman commander; but on the siege and capture of *Leucas*, their principal town, and the total defeat of Philip at Cynoscephālæ, the whole nation finally submitted to the dominion of Rome.

V. The Amphilöchi, to whom we have already referred, occupied the eastern shores of the Sinus Ambracius, and the mountainous country north of the Agrai. Like the latter, they were ranked rather with the barbarians than the Greeks; but Strabo seems to class them with the tribes of Epirotic, not with those of Etolian origin. They at length formed part, however, of the Etolian republic, when that people had so greatly increased their territory, and were afterward conquered by Philip, son of Demetrius; but, on the recovery of Athamania from that prince, they were again attached to Etolia. Their only town was Argos.

VI. The Agrai appear from Thucydides to have been independent of the Acarnanian confederacy at the commencement of the Peloponnesian war. At a subsequent period, however, they are said to have been conquered by the Acarnanians and Athenians.

(D.) PLACES IN ACARNANIA, &c.

1. Actium, a point of land at the entrance of the Sinus Ambracius, deriving its chief importance from the sea-fight which took place near it, in what is now the Bay of Prevesa, between Octavianus and Antony, when the latter was totally defeated. The conqueror, to commemorate his victory, beautified the Temple of Apollo, which stood at Actium, and erected Nicopolis, or "the City of Victory," on the northern side of the gulf, in Epirus. The exact site of Actium has been a subject of dispute, some placing it at La Punta, and others at Azio. best recent travellers and geographers are in favor of the former. D'Anville, who advocates the latter, was misled by the modern name Azio, which is merely a Venetian term, probably given through some misunderstanding as regards the true site. On D'Anville's map, therefore, and those that are copied from it, Actium should have the place of Anactorium. 2. Anactorium, more within the Sinus Ambracius, and to the southeast of Actium. Its site, according to Leake, corresponds to that of Aghios Petros, and not to La Punta, as D'Anville maintains. It

was colonized originally by the Corcyreans and Corinthians, the latter of whom finally obtained sole possession of it. were subsequently, however, ejected by the Acarnanians and Athenians. Anactorium ceased to exist when Augustus transferred its inhabitants to Nicopolis. 3. Argos Amphilöchicum, in the territory of the Amphilochi, and on the River Inachus now the Ariadha. It was founded by a colony from Argos in the Peloponnesus, led, according to some, by Amphilochus, son of Amphiaraus, on his return from Troy; according to others, by his brother Alemeon. The inhabitants, having experienced many calamities, admitted their neighbors, the Ambraciots, into their society. These, however, subsequently gained the ascendency, and expelled the original inhabitants, who thereupon applied for aid to the Acarnanians. The latter, in conjunction with the Athenians, recovered Argos by force, after which the place remained for some time in the joint possession of the Amphilo-Many years after it fell into the chians and Acarnanians. power of the Ætolians. Argos, at a later period, contributed to the formation of the colony of Nicopolis, and became itself deserted. Leake places the site at Neokhóri, near Vlikha.

- 4. Olpæ, a fortified post to the north of the preceding, where the Acarnanians held a court of justice, and where a decisive victory was gained by the Acarnanians and Amphilochians over the Ambraciots and Peloponnesians. Leake places the site of Olpæ at Arapi or in its vicinity. 5. Myrtuntium, a little distance below Actium, and on a salt-water lake of the same name. The lake is now the lagoon of Vulkaria. 6. Echīnus, to the south of the preceding, a town of considerable importance, and one of the earliest colonies on this coast. It stood on a mountain, removed from the sea, and appears to answer now to Ai Vasili.
- 7. Leucas or Leucadia to the southwest of the preceding. This projection of land once formed part of the continent, but was afterward separated from the main land by a narrow cut, and became, as it now is, an island, the modern name of which is Santa Maura, or Lefkadha. The cut itself, three stadia in length, was called Dioryctos, and the passage through was somewhat intricate on account of the shallows. These were marked out by stakes fixed at certain intervals. Strabo says that in his time the Dioryctos was crossed by a bridge. Ac-

cording to Pliny, the earlier name of the peninsula was Nerītis. It was first colonized by a body of Corinthians, to whom Strabo ascribes the cutting of the channel. This work, however, must have been posterior to the time of Thucydides, who describes the Peloponnesian fleet as having been conveyed across the isthmus on more than one occasion. The city of Leucas was situate, according to Livy, on the upper part of the narrow strait which separated the island from the main land. same writer states that it was the principal town of Acarnania. Leake fixes the site at Amaxikhi. S. Nērīcum, to the south of the city of Leucas, and in the same peninsula or island. was probably the oldest town in the Leucadian peninsula, and is mentioned by Homer as having been taken by Laertes before the siege of Troy. 9. The southernmost extremity of Leucas was called Leucate Promontorium, now Cape Ducato, and received its ancient name, according to Strabo, from the white color of the rock. It was celebrated in antiquity for the lover's leap. Sappho is fabled to have been the first to try the remedy of this leap, when enamored of Phaon. On the summit of the promontory was a temple of Apollo; and every year, on the festival of the god, it was customary to hurl from the cliff some condemned criminal as an expiatory victim. Feathers and even birds were fastened to each side of his person, in order to break his fall: a number of boatmen were also stationed below, ready to receive him in their skiffs, and, if they succeeded in saving him, he was conveyed out of the Leucadian territory.

Returning to the Acarnanian coast after quitting Leucas, we find, 10. Palærus, near the modern Zavedra. 11. Sollium, now Selavena, a Corinthian settlement. 12. Astacus, below Crithōte Promontorium, now Cape Candili. Its site is thought to correspond to the modern Tragamesti. It was the chief maritime city northward of Eniadæ, near the Echinades. 13. Eniādæ, near the mouth of the Achelous, or Aspropotamo, a little above the sea, and surrounded by marshes, caused by the overflowing of the river, which rendered it a place of great strength. It was made still stronger, however, by Philip, son of Demetrius, king of Macedon, who, aware of the advantage to be derived from the occupation of a place so favorably situated with respect to the Peloponnesus, fortified the citadel, and inclosed within a wall both the port and arsenal. The

ancient site corresponds, according to Leake, to that of Tri-kardho. Cramer is in favor of Gardako.

Opposite the mouth of the Achelous were the islands called Echinades, many in number, but which, in process of time, have for the most part become connected with the land by the alluvial deposits of the muddy waters of the river. These rocks, as they should rather be termed, were known to Homer, who mentions them as being inhabited, and as having sent a force to Troy under the command of Meges, a distinguished warrior of the Iliad. Dulichium, as it appears, was the principal one of these islands, and its name occurs more than once in the Odyssey, as being well peopled and extensive. Its situation has never been determined by either ancient or modern critics. The modern Petala, being the largest of the Echinades, and possessing the advantage of two well-sheltered harbors, seems to have the best claim to be considered the ancient Dulichium. The group of the Echinades is now commonly known by the name of Curzolari.

Having terminated our description of the Acarnanian coast, we will now take a brief survey of the interior of the country. 1. Ascending the Achelous, we find on its right bank Enia, the remains of which are to be seen at Palæo Catouna. 2. Strātus, higher up the Achelous, and also on the right bank of the stream. It was the principal city of Acarnania, and often mentioned in history. Leake places the site at the village of Surovigli. 3. Phytia or Phætiæ, to the southwest of the preceding, and deriving its name, according to Stephanus, from Phætius, son of Alemæon. Leake places its site at Porta. 4. Medeon, to the west of the preceding, and a place of considerable note. It was famed for the siege which it stood on one occasion against the Ætolians. Leake thinks that the ruins near Katuna are those of this ancient city.

ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF ACARNANIA.

These are, 1. Ithàca. 2. Cephallenia. 3. Zacynthus. 4. Teleboæ or Taphiæ Insulæ. These now form part of what are termed the Ionian Islands. The whole number of islands composing the Ionian Republic or Confederation is seven, namely, Corfu, the ancient Coreyra; Theaki, the ancient Ithaca; Cephallenia, the ancient Cephallenia; Zâkyntho or Zante, the ancient Zacynthus; Santa Maura, the ancient Leucas; Paxo, the ancient Paxos; and Cerigo, the ancient Cythèra. They are all under the protection of Great Britain.

1. ITHACA.

Ithaca, now Theaki, lay directly south of Leucadia, from which it is distant about six miles. It is celebrated as the native island of Ulysses. Its extent, however, as given by ancient authorities, does not correspond with modern computation. Dieæarchus describes it as narrow, and measuring eighty stadia, meaning probably in length; but Strabo affirms in circumference; which is very wide of the truth, since it is not less than thirty miles in circuit. Its length is nearly seventeen miles, but its breadth not more than four. The island throughout was rugged and mountainous, as we learn from more than one passage of the Odyssey.

OBS. Some modern scholars have raised doubts whether the modern Theaki be the Ithaca of the Odyssey or not. The question is discussed by Dr. Wordsworth, in his Pictorial History of Greece, p. 272, seq. According to Sir W. Gell, the Venetian geographers have in a great degree contributed to raise doubts concerning the identity of the modern with the ancient Ithaca, by giving in their charts the name of Val di Compare to this island. That name, however, is totally unknown in the country itself, where the isle is invariably called Ithaca by the upper classes, and Theaki by the lower. It has been asserted that Ithaca is too inconsiderable a rock to have produced any contingent of ships which could entitle its king to so much consideration among the neighboring isles; yet the unrivalled excellence of its port has in modern times created a fleet of fifty vessels of all denominations, which trade to every part of the Mediterranean. (Gell's Geography and Antiquities of Ithaca, p. 30.)

The highest and most remarkable mountain in the island is that so often alluded to under the name of Neritos. According to Dodwell, the modern name is Anoi, which means "lofty;" he observes, also, that the forests spoken of by Homer have disappeared; it is at present bare and barren, producing nothing but stunted evergreens and aromatic plants. Leake speaks of the village of Anoi, on the side of the mountain. There was another mountain, to which the poet applies the name of Neion ($N\eta iov$). Leake supposes this to be the present mountain of Oxoi.

It is evident, from several passages in the Odyssey, that there was a city named *Ithaca*, probably the capital of the island, and the residence of Ulysses. Leake supposes it to have stood on the harbor at present called Port *Polis*, the very name of which favors his supposition, as marking the vicinity of some ancient city. The port called by Homer *Phorcys*, and which he describes so minutely, is supposed by Leake to correspond to the modern *Skhino*, by others to Port *Molo*. There was also another haven, called *Rhcithron*, situate apparently under Mount Neïon, and which was in the Bay of *Afales*, as Leake supposes, toward *Perivolio*. The fondness with which Homer dwells on the scenery of Ithaca gave rise to the erroneous opinion that he was a native of this island.

2. CEPHALLENIA.

Cephallenia, now Cephalonia, lay to the southwest of Ithaca, from which it is separated by a strait of six miles. Its circumference is little less than one hundred and twenty miles. The more ancient name of this island, as we learn from Homer, was Samos. In another part, however, the poet speaks of the Cephallenians $(K\epsilon\phi\alpha\lambda\lambda\bar{\eta}\nu\epsilon\varsigma)$ as the subjects of Ulysses. Strabo describes the island as very mountainous, and gives to the highest ridge the name of Mount Enos. On the summit was the temple of Jupiter Ænesius. It is now called Monte Leone, and is said to be little less than four thousand feet high. Some remains of the temple still exist. Thucydides speaks of four cities in this island, namely, 1. Palle or Pale, which is said to have furnished two hundred soldiers to the army that fought at Platæa. According to Polybius, it was situate in that

part of the island which looks toward Zacynthus, and possessed an ample and fertile territory. It appears to have been a place of considerable strength, from the siege which it was enabled to sustain against Philip of Macedon. The ruins of this city still exist at Palio, a little to the north of the modern Lixivi. 2. Crā-nii, situate, according to Strabo, on the same gulf with Palle, but on the opposite shore. According to Holland, it stood on an eminence at the upper end of the Bay of Argostoli. The site answers to the modern S. Giovanni. 3. Săme, the only town in the island noticed by Homer, from which we may infer that it was the most ancient and considerable. It must have been a place of considerable strength, from its having stood a vigorous siege of four months against the Romans in 189 B.C. The spot still retains the name of Samo, which is also that of the bay at the extremity of which it is situated. 4. Prŏni or Pronēsus, an inconsiderable town, close to the sea, and southeast of Same.

3. ZACYNTHUS.

Zacynthus (Ζάκυνθος), now Zákyntho or Zante, to the southeast of Cephallenia, and said to have derived its name from Zacynthus, son of Dardanus, an Arcadian chief. Thucydides states that at a later period this island received a colony of Achæans from the Peloponnesus. It was subsequently reduced by Tolmides, the Athenian general, from which period we find Zacynthus allied to, or rather dependent upon Athens. At a later period it fell into the hands of Philip III., king of Macedon, and finally into the power of the Romans. Pliny speaks of its fertility. The chief city was also called Zacynthus, and, according to Strabo, was a considerable place. The citadel was called Psophis, from a town of the same name in Arcadia, of which Zacynthus, its reputed founder, The modern name of the city of Zacynthus is the same as was a native. that of the island. The famous pitch wells, noticed by Herodotus, and which he himself visited, are about twelve or thirteen miles from the city. The mountain called Elatus by Pliny, and now known by the name of Monte Scope, rises on the southern side of the town of Zante to an elevation of about twelve hundred feet. Zacynthus is still very fertile, but it has lost its woody character, alluded to by the ancient poets. A very ancient tradition ascribed to Zacynthus the foundation of Saguntum in Spain, in conjunction with the Rutuli of Ardea.

4. TELEBOÆ OR TAPHIÆ INSULÆ.

These form a considerable group of islands, lying northeast of Ithaca, or, rather, between Leucadia and the coast of Acarnania, and are often mentioned by Homer and other classical writers as the haunt of notorious pirates. The principal island is that which is called by Homer Taphos, but by later writers Taphius and Taphiussa, and is probably the same with the one known to modern geographers by the name of Meganisi. It is near the mouth of the Leucadian canal, and contains a good port. Dodwell informs us that Calamo, another of the Taphian group, produces perhaps the finest flour in the world, which is sent to Corfu, and sold as a luxury.

3. ÆTOLIA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES

I. Ætōlia was so called from its inhabitants, the Ætōli (Αἰτωλοί), and these were said to have derived their name from Ætōlus, son of Endymion, who, according to the common ac-

count, came from Elis in the Peloponnesus, defeated and drove out the early settlers, and established his followers in the land.

II. Ætolia was bounded on the north by the mountainous districts of Aperantia and the Æniānes; on the west by Acarnania, from which it was separated by the Achelous; on the south by the Sinus Corinthiacus; and on the east by Doris and the country of the Locri Ozōlæ.

(B.) Divisions.

I. ÆTOLIA, according to the ancient geographers, was divided into Ætolia Antiqua and Ætolia Epictētus.

II. Ætolia Antiqua extended along the coast from the mouth of the Achelous eastward, following the northern shore of the Corinthian gulf, as far as its narrow entrance at Antirrhium. Ætolia Epictetus, or "Ætolia the acquired," was the northern and mountainous part.

III. There were three great divisions of the Ætolian name, the *Apodōti*, *Ophiōneis*, and *Eurytānes*, each of which was subdivided into several different village-tribes.

IV. In modern times, under the Turkish empire, Ætolia was part of the province of *Livadia*. According to the original arrangements, only the part east of the Achelous and south of the two great lakes was to belong to the new kingdom of Greece; but these boundaries are now extended toward the north and west as far as the Gulf of *Arta*.

(C.) ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY.

I. The northern and eastern portion of the Ætolian territory was rugged and mountainous, consisting in great part of lofty ridges branching out from Pindus and Œta into the basin of the Achelous. In these highlands, during the winter, all passage and intercourse between the villages, which are built like nests on the top of the rocks, are often long interrupted by the severity of the cold. The Achelous, however, traverses some broad and fruitful plains; and at its mouth a great level, originally produced by its deposits, was continually receiving fresh accessions, which at length partially united a group of islands (the Echinades), once at some distance from the shore, with each other and with the continent.

II. The fertile land thus gained became the theatre of many conflicts between the bordering tribes. Another fertile plain was similarly formed by the Evenus, the second in size of the Ætolian rivers, which, descending from the side of Œta, parted the ancient districts of Pleuron and Calydon.

(D.) CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.

I. It was partly the legendary renown of the Ætolians, partly their ethnical kindred (publicly acknowledged on both sides) with the Eleans in the Peloponnesus, which authenticated the title of the Ætolians to rank as Hellenes. But

the great mass of the Apodoti, Eurytanes, and Ophioneis, in the inland mountains, were so rude in their manners, and so unintelligible in their speech (which, however, was not barbaric, but very bad Hellenic), that this title might well seem disputable; in point of fact, it was disputed in later times, when the Ætolian power and depredations had become obnoxious to nearly all Greece.

II. It is probably to this difference of manners between the Ætolians on the sea-coast and those in the interior that we are to trace the geographical division, already mentioned, into Ætolia Antiqua and Epictetus. When or by whom this division was introduced we do not know; it can not be founded upon any conquest, for the inland Ætolians were the most unconquerable of mankind; and the affirmation which Ephorus applies to the whole Ætolian race, that it had never been reduced to subjection by any one, is most of all beyond dispute concerning the inland portion of it.

(E.) SKETCH OF ÆTOLIAN HISTORY.

I. The Lelĕges in the north, and the Curētes, probably a kindred race, in the level plains of the south, are the oldest inhabitants of this country that we can trace. The name of Ætolia and Ætoli was introduced, according to tradition, by Ætolus and his followers from Elis, in the Peloponnesus, six generations before the war of Troy.

II. The history of the Ætolians, as a nation, is closely connected with that of the Acarnanians; but, like the latter, they were a people of little importance during the most flourishing periods of the commonwealths of European Greece. After the death of Alexander the Great, B.C. 323, they came into notice by their contests with the Macedonian princes, who allied themselves with the Acarnanians.

III. In the reign of Philip II. of Macedon (which commenced B.C. 220), the Ætolians, after seeing their chief town, Thermus, plundered by this king, and feeling themselves aggrieved by the loss of all they had seized from the Acarnanians, applied to the consul Valerius Lævinus (B.C. 210). Though this produced no beneficial effects, they formed a second treaty with the Romans (about B.C. 198), after the end of the second Punic war. The immediate object of the Romans was the conquest of Macedonia, but it proved eventually that this fatal alliance of the Ætolians was the first step that led to the complete subjugation of all Greece by the Romans.

IV. A series of sufferings and degradations led the way to the occupation of all Ætolia, when it was made part of the Roman province of Achaia. Under Roman dominion, the few towns of Ætolia almost disappeared; many of the inhabitants were transplanted to people the city of Nicopolis, which Augustus had built at the entrance of the Ambracian Gulf, now Gulf of Arta. Since the time of the Romans, it is probable that the face of this country has undergone as few alterations, or received as few improvements from the hand of man, as the most remote parts of the globe.

(F.) PLACES IN ÆTOLIA.

1. Conope, on the left bank of the Achelous, and near the junction of the Cyathus with that stream. According to Strabo and Polybius, it was near one of the ordinary passages of the Achelous, and corresponds probably to the modern Angelokastro. It was an inconsiderable place until it received im-

portant augmentation from Arsinoe, the sister and wife of Ptolemy Philadelphus, when it became a large city, bearing her name. Some, however, suppose Arsinoe and Conope to have been distinct places, and they are so laid down on several maps; but this appears to be an error. Near Conope was a lake of the same name with the city, and which Ovid calls Hyrie. It was likewise styled the Lake of Lysimachia, from the city of that name in its vicinity, a little to the south of it. Its modern name is the Lake of Zygos. The site of Lysimachia answers to the modern Papadhates. 2. Ithoria, a strong fortress, to the southwest of Arsinoe, taken and destroyed by Philip of Maccdon. The modern Ivoria is supposed to answer to its site. 3. Paanium, to the southwest, and on the Achelous. Philip razed its fortifications, and transported some of the materials, such as timber and bricks, on rafts down the Achelous to Œniadæ, which he intended to besiege. It lay a little below the modern Stamna.

4. Pleuron Nova, to the southeast, and at the foot of Mount Aracynthus. It was built after the ancient city of that name, one of the earliest and most celebrated towns of Ætolia, had become deserted by its inhabitants in consequence of the ravages of Demetrius the Ætolian, as Strabo calls him, meaning probably Demetrius II. of Macedon, son of Antigonus Gonatas. The old city stood some distance to the southeast of the new, in the plain toward Calydon. Leake supposes that the site of old Pleuron was near the modern Mesolonghi. 5. Calydon, to the southeast of old Pleuron, famed in Grecian story, and the theme of poetry from Homer to Statius. We are told by mythologists that Œneus, the father of Meleager and Tydeus, reigned at Calydon, while his brother Agrius settled in Pleuron, and that frequent wars arose between them on the subject of contiguous lands. In the vicinity of Calydon the famous boar hunt took place in which Meleager so distinguished himself. From Homer we gather that it stood on a rocky height, but vet that its territory was ample and productive. Some time after the Peloponnesian war we find it in the possession of the Achæans. It was still a town of some importance in the time of Cæsar; but Augustus accomplished its downfall by removing the inhabitants to Nicopolis. Leake found what he supposed to be traces of Calydon at the hamlet of Kurt-Aga. In the

vicinity of Calydon, but nearer the sea arose Mount *Taphiassus*, where Nessus the centaur was said to have died, and to have thus communicated a fetid odor to the waters which issued from it.

- 6. Molycria or Molycrium, to the southeast, and close to the sea. It was colonized by the Corinthians, who were expelled by the Athenians, and was afterward taken by the Ætolians and Peloponnesians. According to Strabo, its foundation was subsequent to the return of the Heraclidæ. Leake places its site on the first rise of the hills behind the castle of Rumili. 7. Antirrhium, a promontory already referred to (p. 483), and so called from its being opposite to Rhium, another promontory in Achaia. It was sometimes styled Rhium Molycricum, from its vicinity to the town of Molycrium, and also Rhium Ætolicum. The Turkish fortress on Antirrhium is now called the castle of Rumili. 8. Thermus, some distance inland, to the northwest, and situate in the midst of a very rugged and mountainous country. So great, in fact, were the difficulties of its approach, and so remote its situation, that it was considered inaccessible, and was therefore deemed, as it were, the citadel of all Ætolia. It was here that the assemblies for deciding the elections of magistrates were held, as well as the most splendid festivals and commercial meetings. Hence the place was stored not only with abundance of provisions and necessaries of life, but with the most costly ornaments, and every thing requisite for splendid entertainments. This city was taken by Philip III. of Macedon, in his memorable expedition into Ætolia, and given up to pillage. More than two thousand statues were defaced on this occasion; a variety of costly arms were carried off, and fifteen thousand complete suits of armor were destroyed. This will give some idea of the size and opulence of the place. According to Leake, Thermus was situated on the slope of a pyramidal hill, and was of a triangular shape. He places its site at Vlokho.
- 9. Trichonium, and near the Lake Trichonitis, which derived its name from the city. Leake places it on the southern side of the lake, at the modern Gavala; but Cramer to the northwest. The latter calls the lake by the modern name of Vrachori; but Leake styles it Apokuro. The remaining geography of Ætolia is unimportant and obscure.

4. LOCRIS.

(A.) NAME, DIVISIONS, &c.

I. Locris was so called from the Locri, its inhabitants, of whom there were three distinct tribes, namely, the Locri Ozölæ, Locri Epicnemidii, and Locri Opuntii.

II. The Epicnemidian and Opuntian Locri alone appear to have been known to Homer, as he makes no mention of the Ozolæ; whence we may conclude that these last were not so ancient as the rest of the nation.

III. The earliest and most authentic accounts concur in ascribing the origin of the Locrians to the Leleges; but it would seem that, in very early times, some tribes of Hellenic origin, probably Æolians, became intermingled with the Leleges, and that from this fusion the Locrian race arose.

1. LOCRI OZŎLÆ.

I. The Locri Ozolæ occupied a narrow tract of country, situated on the northern shore of the Corinthian Gulf, commencing at Antirrhium, and terminating near Cirrha, in Phocis, at the head of the Sinus Crissæus. To the west and north they adjoined the Etolians, and partly, also, in the latter direction, the Dorians, while to the east they bordered on the district of Delphi, belonging to Phocis.

II. According to Strabo, the Ozolæ were a colony from the more celebrated Locri Epicnemidii and Opuntii to the east; and their name, according to some accounts, was derived from some fetid springs ($\delta \zeta \omega$, "to emit a stench"), near Mount Taphiassus, in their vicinity, on the coast, and beneath which the centaur Nessus was said to have been entombed. Others, however, ascribed the name to the undressed skins worn by the ancient inhabitants; while Archytas, an Ozolian poet, derived the name from the abundance of flowers which scented the air!

III. Thucydides represents them as a wild, uncivilized race, and addicted from the earliest period to theft and rapine. In the Peloponnesian war they appear to have sided with the Athenians, as the latter held possession of Naupactus, their principal city and harbor, probably from enmity to the Ætolians, who had espoused the cause of the Peloponnesians.

PLACES AMONG THE LOCKI OZOLÆ.

1. Naupactus, situated at the western extremity of the Locrian territory, and close to Antirrhium. It was said to have derived its name from the circumstance of the Heraclidæ having there built the ships (vav_{ς} and $\pi \dot{\eta} \gamma v \nu \mu$) in which they crossed over into the Peloponnesus. After the Persian war this city was occupied by the Athenians, who there established the Messenians, after these last had evacuated Ithome. The acquisi-

tion of Naupactus was of great importance to the Athenians during the Peloponnesian war, as it was an excellent station for their fleet in the Corinthian Gulf, and not only afforded the means of keeping up a communication with Corcyra and Acarnania, but enabled them also to watch the motions of the enemy on the opposite coast. On the termination of the Peloponnesian war Naupactus surrendered to the Spartans, who expelled the Messenians thence. Philip of Macedon subsequently ceded it to the Ætolians, from whom it passed to the Romans. It was nearly destroyed by an earthquake during the reign of Justinian. The modern town is called *Enebechte* by the Turks, *Nepacto* by the Greeks, and Lepanto by the Franks. The Sinus Corinthiacus is called the Gulf of Lepanto. 2. Œneon, to the northeast, and a sea-port. Near it was a temple of Nemean Jove, in which Hesiod is said to have expired. Œneon stood near the modern Magula, according to Leake. 3. Eanthe, some distance to the east of the preceding, and also on the coast. It was a city of some note, and is often mentioned by the classic writers. It contained temples to Venus, Diana, and Æsculapius. Its site was near Galaxidi. Cramer errs in placing it at Veternitza. 4. Chalæon, the last maritime town of Locris on the Crissæan Gulf. Leake places it at Larnaki.

5. Amphissa, the most celebrated city of the Ozolæ, to the north of the head waters of the Crissæan Gulf, and deriving its name from the circumstance of its being surrounded on every side by mountains (ἀμφί, "around"). It was destroyed by order of the Amphictyons for having dared to restore the walls of Crissa, and cultivate the ground which was held to be sacred, and also on account of the manner in which the inhabitants molested travellers who had occasion to pass through their territory. At a later period, however, Amphissa appears to have somewhat recovered from this ruined state when under the dominion of the Ætolians. It is generally agreed that the modern town of Salona represents the ancient Amphissa. The Sinus Crissæus is now called the Gulf of Salona.

2. LOCRI EPICNEMIDII.

The Locri Epicnēmidii occupied a small district immediately adjoining Thermopylæ, and confined between Mount $Cn\bar{e}mis$, a branch of Eta, and the Sea of Eubæa. They were called Epicnemidii from their being adjacent to Mount Cnemis ($\ell\pi\ell$, $K\nu\eta\mu\ell\varsigma$). Homer classes them with the Opuntii under the general name of Locri.

PLACES AMONG THE LOCRI EPICNEMIDII.

1. Alpēni or Alpenus, just below Thermopylæ, and whence, as Herodotus informs us, Leonidas and his little band drew their supplies. 2. Nicaa, to the southeast, occupied during the Sacred War by Phalæcus, the Phocian general, in order to obstruct the passage of Philip through Thermopylæ. Gell places it at the modern Molo. 3. Scarphe or Scarpheia, to the southeast. It was nearly destroyed by an earthquake, which raised the sea to such an elevation that it was buried beneath its waters. It is supposed to have stood between the modern villages of Molo and Andera. 4. Thronium, to the southeast, near the River Boagrius, and some distance from the coast. It was taken by the Athenians during the Peloponnesian war, but several years afterward fell into the hands of the Phocians, who enslaved the inhabitants. Its site corresponds with an ancient ruin above Romani. 5. Cnemides, a fortress, to the northeast, opposite to the Promontory of Cenæum in Eubæa, from which it was separated by a distance of ten stadia. Along this part of the coast were the small islands called Lichades. In one of these islands was a monument of Lichas (whence the name of the group), who was fabled to have been hurled into the sea, in this quarter, by Hercules, when suffering from the effects of the poisoned tunic.

3. LOCRI OPUNTII.

I. The Opuntian Locri followed after the Epicnemidii, and occupied a line of coast of about fifteen miles, beginning a little south of Cnemides, and extending to the town of Halæ, on the frontier of Bæotia. Inland their territory reached to the Phocian towns of Hyampolis and Abæ. They derived their name from the city of Opus, their metropolis.

II. The Opuntian Locri pretended that they were the most ancient Hellenic people in Greece; and that *Cynus*, their principal maritime city, had been inhabited by Deucalion, when he first descended from Parnassus.

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PLACES AMONG THE LOCRI OPUNTII.

1. Daphnus, the first town on their coast, but at an earlier period included within the limits of Phocis. It no longer existed in Strabo's time. 2. Alope, to the southeast of the preceding, where the Athenians obtained some advantage over the Locrians in a descent which they made on this coast during the Peloponnesian war. 3. Cynus, to the southeast of the pre-

ceding, and opposite to Ædepsus in Eubœa. It was the principal maritime city of the Opuntian Locri. According to ancient traditions, it had long been the residence of Deucalion and Pyrrha; and the latter was even said to have been interred here. The ruins of this city are probably those near the village of Lebanitis. 4. Opus, to the southeast, and one of the most ancient cities of Greece. It is celebrated by Pindar as the domain of Deucalion and Pyrrha, and by Homer as the birth-place of Patroclus. Plutarch commends the piety of the inhabitants, and their observance of religious rites. This place was the metropolis of the Opuntian Locri. Leake places its site at Kardenitza. Opus gave name to the Opuntius Sinus, now the Gulf of Talanti. Opposite to Opus was the island of Atalanta, fortified by the Athenians during the Peloponnesian war, with a view of checking the depredations of the Locrian pirates on the coast of Eubœa. It is now called Talanta. 5. Naryx or Narycium, to the northwest of Opus, and celebrated as the birth-place of Ajax, son of Oïleus. It was taken by the Phocians and razed to the ground.

5. DORIS.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, & C.

I. Doris, called, also, from its four cities, Dorica Tetrāpōlis, was a small tract of country, deriving its name from its Doric inhabitants. It was situate to the northeast of Ætolia, and confined between the high chains of mountains belonging to that province, as well as those of Parnassus to the south, and of Œta to the east and north.

II. This rugged and obscure canton would have presented but little to attract notice, were it not for the circumstance of its having been the fourth and last settlement of the great Doric race, before their final migration to the Peloponnesus. According to Herodotus, the more ancient name of this small tract of country was *Dryopis*, derived probably from *Dryopes*, one of the earliest tribes of Greece.

(B.) HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE DORIANS.

I. The Dorians were the most powerful of the Hellenic tribes, and derived their origin, according to their own account, from the mythic Dorns, the son of Hellen. Modern scholars, however, as we have before remarked, make the name Dorians $(\Delta\omega\rho\iota\epsilon\bar{\iota}\varsigma)$ equivalent to "Highlanders," from δa and $\delta\rho\sigma\varsigma$.

II. Herodotus mentions five successive migrations of this race. Their first

settlement was in *Phthiotis*, in the time of Deucalion; the next, under Dorus, in *Hestiæotis*, at the foot of Ossa and Olympus; the third on Mount Pindus, after they had been expelled by the Cadmæans from Hestiæotis; the fourth set-

tlement was in Dryopis, afterward called the Dorian Tetrapolis.

III. From the Doric Tetrapolis the Dorians migrated into the Peloponnesus, though some of their number remained behind. This last migration is commonly termed the return of the Heraclīdæ, and is stated to have occurred eighty years after the Trojan war, or 1104 B.C. The origin and nature of the connection which subsisted between the Heraclidæ and the Dorians are involved in much obscurity. The Heraclidæ appear to have been a powerful Achæan family, united with the Dorians in a similar manner with, but by a stronger tie than, the Ætolians under Oxylus, who are also said to have taken part in this expedition.

IV. The Dorians were, from very early times, divided into three tribes, namely, the Hylleis, the Dymānes, and the Pamphylians. The two latter are said to have been descended from Dymas and Pamphylus, the two sons of Ægimius, a mythic Dorian king, and the first claimed descent from Hyllus, the son of Hercules. Some, however, make the Hylleis and Dymanes to have been the genuine Dorians, and the Pamphylians to have been made up of volunteers who

joined the expedition in the Peloponnesus.

V. The Dorians, when transplanted into the more genial climate and the more ample and fertile territory of the Peloponnesus, seem always to have preserved a grateful recollection of their earlier abode in the Doric Tetrapolis, and to have been anxious to maintain that interchange of good will with the Dorians who had remained behind there, which was especially cherished by the ancient Greeks toward their mother country, and forms one of the most pleasing features in their system of colonization. Lacedæmon, more particularly, as the leading Peloponnesian state of Dorian origin, was frequently called upon to assist its little metropolis when threatened by attacks from the more powerful Phocians and the highlanders of Œta.

VI. But still this small territory was occasionally an object of contention to the neighboring states, more especially in the latter period of Grecian history, during the Ætolian and Macedonian wars; so that, as Strabo observes, it is a matter of surprise that its few towns should have still existed when the Romans became masters of Greece.

PLACES IN THE DORIC TETRAPOLIS.

The Dorian Tetrapolis contained, as its name denotes, four cities. 1. Erinëus, on the River Pindus, now the Apostolia, a branch of the Cephisus. 2. Boeum or Boium, to the southeast of the preceding, on a branch of the Pindus, and supposed by Leake to correspond to the modern Mariolátes. 3. Pindus, according to Strabo, stood above Erineus. He adds, that in its vicinity flowed a stream of the same name with the city (the Pindus, already mentioned by us), which joined the Cephisus close to Lilæa, a Phocian town, near which the latter river rose. He also informs us that some writers gave to the town of Pindus the name of Acyphas. Leake supposes this place to have

been toward the sources of the river in the mountain, which is connected northward with Œta proper, and which to the south gives rise to the River Mornos, which joins the sea near Nepakto. 4. Cytinium, situated, according to Thucydides, to the left or west of Parnassus, and on the borders of the Locri Ozolæ. It was probably the most considerable of all the four Dorian cities; at least it is more frequently mentioned in history than any other. Leake thinks there can be little doubt that Gravia answers to this ancient city. The modern town of Gravia stands exactly at the northern entrance of the pass that led from the valley of Doris to the plain of Amphissa.

6. PHOCIS.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. Phocis was said to have derived its name from Phocus, the son of Æacus. It was bounded on the north by the Epicnemidian and Opuntian Locri, on the south by the Corinthian Gulf, on the west by the Locri Ozolæ and Doris, and on the east by Bæotia.

II. The territory of Phocis originally extended to the Eubcean channel, but was afterward entirely separated from the sea by *Locris*. Strabo says that it was divided into two parts by the range of *Parnassus*, which extends in a southeasterly direction through Phocis till it joins Mount *Helicon* on the borders of *Baotia*.

(B.) ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY, &c.

I. Parnassus and the mountains which separate Phocis from Locris form the upper valley of the River *Cephisus*, on the banks of which there is some fertile country, though in many parts the mountains approach very near both banks of the river.

II. The southern part of Phocis is almost entirely covered with the mountains which branch off to the south from the huge mass of Parnassus, though there are a few fertile plains between these mountains, of which the largest is the celebrated Crissæan plain.

III. Territorially speaking, the most valuable part of Phocis consisted in the valley of the Cephisus. It was on the projecting mountain ledges and rocks on each side of this river that most of the Phocian towns were situated.

(C.) SKETCH OF PHOCIAN HISTORY.

I. We know very little respecting the early inhabitants of Phocis. According to Pausanias, they derived their name, as already stated, from a king Phocus, son of Æacus; and that the name is of considerable antiquity is evident from the Phocians being mentioned by Homer. Previous to the Persian invasion, they appear to have been frequently engaged in hostilities with the

Thessalians, and to have been successful in maintaining their independence. Xerxes, at the instigation of the Thessalians, ravaged Phocis with fire and sword, and destroyed many of their cities.

II. The Phocians had no political importance till after the battle of Leuctra; but, shortly after that event, circumstances occurred which occasioned the celebrated Phocian or Sacred War, in which all the great states of Greece were more or less concerned. The immediate occasion of this war is said to have been an act of sacrilege committed by the Phocians in cultivating a part of the Crissæan plain, which had been doomed by a decree of the Amphictyons, in B.C. 585, to lie waste forever. But, whatever may have been the immediate, the real occasion of the war was the animosity between Thebes and Phocis, which had long prevailed under a show of peace. The Thebans used their influence in the Amphictyonic council to induce the Amphictyons to sentence the Phocians to pay a heavy fine to the god for the violation of the sacred land; and, on their refusing to pay this fine, the council passed a decree, that, if the fine were not paid, the Phocians should forfeit their territory to the gods, which decree was, in all probability, intended to reduce the Phocians to the condition of the Helots in Laconia, subject to the jurisdiction of the temple of Delphi.

III. In these alarming circumstances, the Phocians were induced by Philomelus, who appears to have held some high office in the Phocian state, and was a man of great talent and energy, to make the bold attempt of seizing the city and temple of Delphi. This attempt was successful, and the Phocians obtained in the treasures deposited in the temple ample means for carrying on the war. This war, which lasted fourteen years, was waged with various success on both sides. The Thebans and almost all the northern states of Greece were opposed to the Phocians; and though the Athenians and Spartans were willing, in consequence of their fear of the power of Thebes, to afford assistance to the Phocians, the former were too much weakened by the Peloponnesian war, and the latter by the Theban victories and the formation of Messenia as an independent state, to render any effectual aid.

IV. But what the Phocians wanted in allies was compensated by mercenary troops; and it is difficult to say how long the struggle might have lasted, had not the Amphictyons called in the assistance of Philip of Macedon, who took possession of Delphi, and put an end to the war, B.C. 346. The Phocians were severely punished for their sacrilege; all their cities, with the exception of Abæ, were razed to the ground, and their inhabitants dispersed in villages not containing more than fifty inhabitants. Their two votes in the Amphictyonic council were taken away and given to Philip. Many of the towns, however, appear to have been rebuilt soon afterward. Phocis subsequently, under the Roman sway, formed part of the province of Achaia.

(D.) PLACES IN PHOCIS.

1. Cirrha, at the head of the Sinus Crissœus, or Gulf of Salona, and close to the mouth of the River Plistus. It was the harbor of Delphi, from which it was distant sixty stadia according to Pausanias, and eighty according to Strabo. This place is often confounded with Crissa, which stood more inland between Cirrha and Delphi. According to some of the ancient writers, the Cirrhean plain and port were inhabited at an early

period by the Cirrhæi and Acragallidæ, a nefarious race, who violated the sanctity of the temple of Delphi, and ransacked its treasures. The oracle, on being consulted by the Amphictyons, declared that a war of extermination was to be carried on against these offenders, and that their land was never thereafter to be cultivated. This decree was executed in the time of Solon, who took an active part in the expedition. The port of Cirrha was then demolished, and its territory declared aceursed. This edict, however, was afterward violated by the Amphissians, who tilled the land and repaired the port. It is evident that Cirrha still existed in the time of Pausanias, as he mentions the temples of Apollo, Diana, and Latona. cording to Gell, the ruins of Cirrha are near the village of Xeropigado. Above Cirrha was Mount Cirphis, separated from the chain of Parnassus by the valley of the Plistus. 2. Crissa, higher up than Cirrha, toward the foot of Parnassus. only gave name to the Sinus Crissæus, now the Gulf of Salona, but the plain also in which it stood was called the Crissæan plain. In this plain the Pythian games were celebrated. Crissæans were charged by the Delphians with undue exactions from the strangers who came to consult the Delphian oracle. The Amphictyons declared war against them, which, after lasting for ten years, ended in the destruction of Crissa, B.C. 588, the land of which was dedicated to the god. The ruins of Crissa still exist at a spot called Crisso.

3. Anticyra, to the southeast, on the coast, and celebrated for its preparation of hellebore, which grew on the mountains above the town. It must not be confounded with the Thessalian Anticyra (page 503). Although, like the other Phocian cities, Anticyra was for a time dismantled and abandoned at the end of the Sacred War, it had survived many of the other towns of Phocis in the time of the Roman empire, an advantage which it chiefly owed to its situation on a sheltered gulf, and its importance as a point of communication with the interior. Its ruins are at Aspraspitia. 4. Mědeon, near Anticyra, and, according to Strabo, one hundred and sixty stadia from the confines of Bæotia. Cramer places it on the opposite side of the bay; but Leake assigns it a position to the northwest of Anticyra, and makes it answer to the modern Desfina. It was destroyed with the other cities at the termination of the Sacred

War, and probably never restored. The *Pharygium* Promontorium is Cape *Aghia*, beyond which was, 5. *Mychus*, a port, and the extreme point of Phocis on the eastern frontier, where it was contiguous to Bœotia. It was the port of Bulis, and answers now to the haven called *Hagios Lukas*.

6. Ambrysus, to the northeast of Anticyra, situate in a rich and fertile country, abounding in vines, and a plant producing a scarlet dye, by means of an insect which was bred in the berries. The tree meant was the Quercus coccifera. This place, having been destroyed by the Amphictyons, was rebuilt and fortified by the Thebans before the battle of Chæronea. ruins are near the village of Dystomo. Advancing toward Parnassus, which rises to the northwest of Ambrysus, we enter on the celebrated road known by the name of $\Sigma \chi \iota \sigma \tau \dot{\eta}$ 'Oδός, or "the divided way," often mentioned by the Greek tragedians as the spot where Laius fell by the hand of his unfortunate son Œdipus. It was also called Triodos, from the circumstance of the three roads leading to Delphi, Daulis, and Ambrysus uniting there. Dodwell makes the modern name Derbeni, which means a pass. 7. Lycorēa, to the northwest, and a place of the highest antiquity, since it is stated in the Arundelian marbles to have been once the residence of Deucalion. Strabo affirms that it was more ancient than Delphi. It was high up on the mountain, and its site is supposed to correspond to that of the village of Liakura.

8. Delphi, a celebrated city, the largest in Phocis, situate on an elevation sixteen stadia in circumference, at the foot of the southern side of Parnassus, and built in the form of an amphitheatre. It was the focus of the Dorian religion, and the seat of the oracle of Apollo, the most famous one in Greece. It naturally, therefore, became populous and wealthy. The inhabitants consisted of Dorians, who formed the privileged class, and of the descendants of the bondsmen of the temple. The constitution was originally monarchical: the kings were also called prytanes. The Dorian families made an oligarchy, from which the priests, the Pythian court of justice, and a limited senate were chosen. Delphi was, from very early times, the rendezvous of an important federal union, or amphictyony, the organization of which is attributed by Strabo to Acrisius. Its site is occupied by the modern Castri.

MORE PARTICULAR ACCOUNT OF DELPHI.

THE original name of the place was Pytho; and Homer does not call it by its more modern appellation, which seems to have been derived from the cavern whence the prophetic vapor issued, or from the serpent which Apollo slew there. (Hesych., Δελφός, μήτρα, καὶ ὁ ἐν Δελφοῖς δρακών.) From the description which Strabo gives of the cavern, and from the fact that Delphi was called the "navel of the earth," it should seem that the former derivation is preferable. There was a legend that two eagles, sent by Jupiter from the east and west, met at Delphi; and in the temple was a stone adorned with two golden eagles, and other devices, which was called the navel stone: representations of this may be seen on many ancient monuments; as, for instance, in the bas relief representing the combat between Apollo and Hercules for the Delphic tripod. The oracles were delivered by a priestess, who sat upon a tripod, placed over the mouth of the cavern, and who, having exhaled the vapor, pronounced some prophecy in verse or prose: if in prose, it was afterward set to verse by the poets attached to the temple. The oracle is said to have been suggested by the effects produced by the vapor upon some goats and the man who attended them. The great reputation of the Delphian oracle made it the richest shrine in Greece, as every person who was satisfied with the response he obtained made a point of offering some costly donation to the temple. The first stone temple at Delphi was built by Trophonius and Agamedes: this having been destroyed by fire, B.C. 548, a new one was built by the Amphictyons from the proceeds of a voluntary subscription, to which even Amasis, the king of Egypt, largely contributed. The Alcmæonidæ, who contracted to build it, very liberally substituted Parian marble in the front of the building for the common stone of which they had undertaken to construct the edifice. The wealth of Delphi naturally attracted plunderers. The Persians under Xerxes made an unsuccessful attempt to get possession of the treasures accumulated there. Phocian leaders in the Sacred War did not hesitate to appropriate them as a fund for the payment of their mercenaries. At a still later period, Delphi became exposed to a formidable attack from a large body of Gauls, headed by their king Brennus. These barbarians, having forced the defiles of Œta, possessed themselves of the temple, and ransacked its treasures. The booty which they obtained on this occasion is stated to have been immense; and this they must have succeeded in removing to their own country, since we are told that, on the capture of Tolosa (now Toulouse) by the Roman general Cæpio, a great part of the Delphic spoils were found. Such is the account of Strabo. Pausanias, however, relates, that the Gauls met with great disasters in their attempt on Delphi, and were totally discomfited through the miraculous intervention of the god. Sylla is also said to have robbed this temple; and the Emperor Nero carried off five hundred statues of bronze at one time. Constantine the Great, however, proved a more fatal enemy to Delphi than either Sylla or Nero. He removed all the sacred tripods to adorn the Hippodrome of his new city, and among these was the famous one which the Greeks, after the battle of Platææ, found in the camp of Mardonius, and which they consecrated to Apollo. The priestess at Delphi could only be consulted on certain days, and never oftener than once in the course of a month. 'Delphi derived farther celebrity from its being the place where the Amphictyonic council held one of their assemblies.

Above Delphi rises Mount Parnassus, a chain which extends in a northeasterly direction from the country of the Locri Ozolæ to Mount Œta, and in a southwesterly direction through the middle of Phoeis till it joins Mount Helicon on the borders of Bœotia. The name, however, was more usually restricted to the lofty mountain at the foot of which Delphi was situated. According to Stephanus, it was anciently called Larnassus, because the ark or larnax of Deucalion landed here after the flood. It is called at the present day Liákura. This mountain was sacred to Apollo and the Muses.

Parnassus is the highest mountain in central Greece. Strabo says that it could be seen from the Acrocorinthus at Corinth, and also states that it was of the same height as Mount Helicon, but in the latter point he was mistaken, according to Leake, who informs us that Liakura is some hundreds of feet higher than Palacouni, which is the highest point of Helicon. Parnassus was covered the greatest part of the year with snow, whence the epithet of "snowy," so generally applied to it by the poets. Above Delphi there were two lofty rocks, from which the mountain is frequently called by the poets the "two headed" (δικόρυφος), one of which Herodotus names Hyampeia, but which were usually called Phadriades. Between these two rocks the celebrated Castalian Fount, which was sacred to the Muses, and supposed to impart poetic inspiration unto those who quaffed its waters, flows from the upper part of the mountain. It at present is clear, and forms an excellent beverage. The water which oozes from the rock was in ancient times introduced into a hollow square, where it was retained for the use of the Pythia and the oracular priests. The fountain is now ornamented with pendent ivy, and overshadowed by a large fig-tree. Above the spring, at the distance of sixty stadia from Delphi, was the Corycian Cave, sacred to Pan and the Corycian nymphs, which Pausanias speaks of as superior to every other known cavern. When the Persians were marching against Delphi, a great part of the inhabitants took refuge in this cavern. It is described by a modern traveller as three hundred and thirty feet long and nearly two hundred wide. As far as this cave, the road from Delphi was accessible by horses and mules, but beyond it the ascent was difficult even for an active man.

9. Tithorēa or Neon, above the Corycian Cave, and near the summit of Parnassus, and eighty stadia distant from Delphi. Its ruins are near the modern village of Velitza. Near Tithorea flowed the River Cachăles, now Kako-Rheuma, or "the evil torrent." It emptied into the Cephisus. 10. Lilaa, to the northwest of the preceding, and near the sources of the Cephisus. Pausanias states that the water issued from the spring at midday with a sound like the bellowing of a bull. This city was destroyed by Philip and the Amphictyons at the termination of the Sacred War, but was restored by the Bœotians and the Athenians. Its site is marked by ruins, called by the usual name of Palæocastro. 11. Elatēa, to the northeast of Tithorea, and the most considerable and important city of Phoeis after Delphi. It was situate, according to Pausanias,

one hundred and eighty stadia from Amphissa, on a gently rising slope above the plain watered by the Cephisus. It was captured and burned by the army of Xerxes, but, being afterward restored, was occupied by Philip of Macedon in his advance into Phocis to overawe the Athenians. The alarm and consternation produced at Athens by his approach is finely described by Demosthenes in his oration for the Crown. Strabo remarks on its advantageous position, which commanded the entrance into Phocis and Bœotia, and hence the sensation produced at Athens by the news of its capture. Its ruins are to be seen on the site called *Elephta* or *Lefta*, on the left bank of the Cephisus, and at the foot of some hills which unite with the chain of Cnemis and Œta. The river Cephisus has already been described (page 481).

12. Daulis, to the southeast of Elatea, and south of the Cephisus. It was a city of great antiquity, and celebrated in mythology as the scene of the tragic story of Philomela and Procne. Thucydides affirms that Teres, who had married Procne, the daughter of Pandion, sovereign of Athens, was chief of Daulis, then occupied, as well as the rest of Phocis, by a body of Thracians. By these probably are meant the "Old Thracians," or Pierians. Philomela is often called by the poets "the Daulian bird." Strabo asserts that the word "Daulos," signifying a thick forest, was given to this district from its woody character. Livy represents Daulis as situate on a lofty hill, difficult to be scaled. The name was changed at a later period to Daulia and Daulium. Near the ancient site stands the modern village of Davlía. 13. Hyampolis, east of Elatea according to Cramer, but to the southeast according to Leake. It was one of the most ancient cities of Phocis, and was said to have been founded by the Hyantes, who are named among the earliest tribes of Greece. It was situate near a defile leading toward Thermopylæ, and on the road from Elatea to Opus. It was destroyed by Philip and the Amphietyons; but it afterward became again a place of some note in the time of Strabo, having been restored and embellished by the Emperor Hadrian. Its ruins are near the village of Bogdana. 14. Aba, southeast of the preceding, founded by a colony from Argos, and celebrated for an oracle of Apollo held in great esteem and veneration. Its temple, richly adorned with offerings, was

sacked and burned by the Persians. Having been restored, it was again consumed in the Sacred War by the Bœotians. Hadrian caused another to be built, but much inferior in size to the former. According to Aristotle, the Abantes of Eubœa came from Abæ. This city, on account of the sanctity of its temple and oracle, was not destroyed at the end of the Phocian or Sacred War. Its ruins are near the village of Exarcho.

7. B Œ O T I A.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Bæotia, now part of Livadía, derived its name from its inhabitants the Bœotians (Βοιωτοί), who were originally a Thessalian race, and drove out the earlier occupants of the land.

II. It was bounded on the west by *Phocis*, on the northwest by the territory of the *Locri Ozola*, on the north and northeast by the *Opuntius Sinus* and *Euripus*, on the southeast by *Attica*, and on the southwest by the *Sinus Corinthiacus*.

(B.) ASPECT AND PRODUCTIVENESS OF THE COUNTRY.

I. Bœotia may be described as consisting of two basins of very irregular form and of unequal dimensions, namely, the valley of the Asopus, and the lower part of the vale of the Cephisus. The valley of the Asopus is bounded on the south by the range of Parnes and Cithæron. The upper valley of the Cephisus belonged to the Phocians.

II. According to the recent survey of Captain Copeland, a mountain wall lines the whole continental coast of the Euripus, from the valley of the Asopus to the flats at the outlet of the Sperchius. A large portion of this forms the coast of ancient Bœotia, the whole length of which, following the indentations, is perhaps about thirty miles.

III. Strabo describes the interior of Bœotia as consisting of hollow plains, surrounded on all sides by mountains. The most remarkable feature is the Lake *Copais*, of which we have already spoken (p. 482). Its basin must be at a considerable elevation; but Thiersch's assertion, that the level of this lake is more than one thousand feet above the sea, is an exaggeration, and appears, in fact, to be only a guess. This lake is the receptacle of an extensive drainage, and, among other streams, receives in particular the *Cephisus* (p. 481). The basin of the Lake Copais contains a large amount of fertile land, capable of growing cotton and other products in abundance.

IV. Beetia was remarkable in ancient times for its extraordinary fertility, and it was this cause, probably, more than the dampness and thickness of their atmosphere, that depressed the intellectual and moral energies of the Beetians, and justified the ridicule which their temperate and witty neighbors, the Athenians, so freely poured on their proverbial failing. Some of the principal productions and manufactures of the country are enumerated in the Acharnians of Aristophanes (v. 781, seq.). The linen fabrics of Beetia were held in great estimation, and the iron mines, which were anciently worked in the eastern chain of mountains, supplied the material for the famed Beetian cutlery; hence we read in

ancient writers of Aonian iron, Aonian weapons, and helmets of Bœotian workmanship, when excellence is meant to be described.

(C.) SKETCH OF BEOTIAN HISTORY, &c.

I. There is, perhaps, no country of Hellas, with respect to the ancient inhabitants of which so many and such complicated traditions exist. We may divide the earliest of these into two classes, one including those traditions which refer to the Ægyptians as the earliest inhabitants of Bœotia, the other containing those traditions to which we owe the old story of a Phœnician colony. It is very difficult to distinguish between truth and fiction in these narratives.

II. The best modern scholars are inclined to reject the first class of traditions altogether. The traditions of the second class, which are much older, and consequently more involved than the former, relate that Thebes was founded by a Phænician prince named Cadmus, when in search of his sister Europa, who had been carried off by Jupiter. It is not probable, however, that Thebes, an inland town, which had no internal commerce, and where trading was, in fact, stigmatized, should have been founded by the Phænicians, who generally built no cities but as emporia for traffic. We are therefore thrown back upon the supposition that the whole story is a fiction, and that Cadmus was an indigenous Theban name. The old inhabitants of Thebes were called Cadmeans, their city Cadmea, and they carried this ethnic name along with them into their colonies. Cadmus was probably a deity of the Pelasgic Tyrrheni. When Strabo, therefore, and other writers, inform us that Bœotia was occupied before the arrival of Cadmus by several barbarous clans under the various names of Aones, Ectenes, Temmices, and Hyantes, we must probably regard these as none other than branches of the very Cadmeans themselves.

III. The Cadmeans, and the cognate tribe of the Minyans, occupied Beotia till about sixty years after the taking of Troy, when they were driven out by the Æolian Bœotians, a Thessalian people settled in the upper vale of the Apidanus, and in the neighborhood of the Sinus Pagasæus, who had themselves been forced to leave their settlements by the Thessalian immigration from Thesprotia. We have only fragmentary information with respect to the early history of the people who from this time continued to be the inhabitants of Bœotia, nor are we able to speak with much certainty of the constitutions of the different towns, and of their relation to one another. We know merely that the Beetian towns became members of a league, of which Thebes was at the head. The deputies of the confederate states met in the plain before Coronea, at the temple of Athena of Iton; and this meeting took place at the festival of the Pambœotia. Every one of the confederate states was, as such, free, but several of them had smaller towns dependent on them. It is very difficult to determine the number of the independent states. They are supposed, however, to have been fourteen, and Müller conjectures them to have been Thebes, Orchomenus, Lebadēa, Coronēa, Copæ, Haliartus, Thespiæ, Tanagra, Ocaleæ, Onchestus, Anthedon, Chalia, Platææ, and Eleutheræ.

IV. The representatives of the different towns of the confederacy were called Bœotarchs, and Thebes had two votes among them. The affairs of the confederacy were debated at four national councils, the Boœtarchs having the initiative authority, the members of the council the power of confirmation. The Bœotian confederacy was dissolved in B.C. 171, after having undergone many changes and fluctuations. With regard to the form of government which prevailed in the several Bœotian towns, we have good reason for believing that it was the same with that of Thebes which was in the historical times generally

a rigid oligarchy. With such a government, the Thebans must naturally have been opposed to the neighboring democratical state of Attica; and accordingly we find them, about the year 507 B.C., joining the Peloponnesians and Chalcidians in an attack upon the Athenians; and probably the same cause made them go over to the Persians in 480 B.C. The victory of Platææ deprived them of their authority in the Bæotian league, until the Lacedæmonians, from interested considerations, acceded to the wishes of the oligarchical party in the lesser states, and restored to them, in 457 B.C., the power which they had taken from them.

V. In the year 455 B.C., the decisive battle of Œnophỹta subjected all Bœòtia to the Athenians, and Thebes became democratical; but, a few years after (447 B.C.), in consequence of some abuse of power on the part of the democracy, the oligarchical form of government was restored, and the signal defeat sustained by the Athenians at Coronea freed Bœotia from her foreign yoke. The Thebans were active partisans of Sparta in the Peloponnesian war, and contributed mainly to the downfall of Athens; but in the year 395 B.C. they became members of the confederacy against Lacedæmon, which was broken up in the course of the following year by the victory which Agesilaus gained over them at Coronea. The peace of Antalcidas followed (387 B.C.); and, five years after, the treacherous seizure of the Cadmea, or citadel of Thebes, by Phæbidas the Lacedæmonian, and its subsequent recovery by Pelopidas, brought about another war between Bæotia and Lacedæmon, in which the great abilities of the Theban generals Epaminondas and Pelopidas made Bæotia the leading power in Greece. But the former fell at Mantinea, and the power of Thebes fell with him.

VI. The Macedonian influence now began to prevail; Athens and Thebes were overthrown by Philip at Chæronea (338 B.C.), and, three years after, the latter city was entirely destroyed by Alexander the Great. In the year 315 B.C., Cassander rebuilt Thebes, with the zealous co-operation of the Athenians, but it never regained its political importance. Thebes favored the Roman cause in the war with Perseus, but it dwindled away to a mere nothing under the Roman dominion.

(D.) PLACES IN BEOTIA.

1. Siphæ or Tiphæ, the first Bæotian port on the Mare Alcyonium, beginning from the Phocian frontier. It boasted of having given birth to Tiphys, the pilot of the Argonauts. Its site is probably at the modern Agiani. The Mare Alcyonium was an arm of the Sinus Corinthiacus, at its eastern extremity, and derived its name from the peculiar calmness of its waters at certain seasons. 2. Thisbe, a few miles inland, and to the northwest, noticed by Homer as abounding in wild pigeons. Strabo says it was still distinguished in his day for the same local characteristic. Its site corresponds to that of Kakosia, where, according to Gell, there is still an immense number of rock pigeons.

Above Thisbe rises Mount *Helicon*, now *Palacovouni*, so famed in antiquity as the seat of Apollo and the Muses. Pausanias ascribes the worship of the Muses here to the Pierians, or Old Thracians, of whom we have already spoken (p. 450),

and who transferred from Macedonia the names of Libethra, Pimplea, and the Pierides, to the dells of Helicon. Strabo affirms that Helicon retains its snows during the greater part of the year. According to Leake, it is some hundred feet less in height than Parnassus. On the summit was the grove of the Muses, adorned with several statues, and a little below was the fountain of Aganippe, sacred to the Muses, who were hence called Aganippides. About twenty feet above the grove was the fountain Hippocrēne, said to have been produced from the ground, when Pegasus first struck it with his hoof. Hence the name of "Horse's Fountain," $\Pi\pi\sigma\kappa\rho\eta\nu\eta$, or $\Pi\pi\pi\sigma\nu\kappa\rho\eta\nu\eta$, from $\Pi\pi\sigma\rho$, "horse," and $\kappa\rho\eta\nu\eta$, "a fountain." These two fountains or springs supplied the small rivers Olmius and Permessus, which, after uniting their waters, flowed into the Lake Copais near Haliartus.

3. Ascra, situate on a rocky summit belonging to Helicon, and celebrated as the birth-place of Hesiod. Pausanias reports, that in his day only one tower remained to mark the site of Ascra. Leake fixes the site at *Pyrgaki*, where a ruined tower, whence the spot gets its name, still remains. 4. Thespia, according to Strabo, forty stadia from Ascra, and near the foot of Helicon, looking toward the south and the Crissæan Gulf. The Thespians deserve honorable mention for their brave and generous conduct during the Persian war, when the rest of Bœotia basely submitted to Xerxes. The troops sent by them to Thermopylæ, to aid Leonidas, chose rather to die at their post than desert the Spartan king and his heroic followers. Their city was in consequence burned by the Persians, after the inhabitants had evacuated it and retired to the Peloponnesus. A small body of them, however, fought at Platææ, under Pausanias. The Thespians distinguished themselves also at Delium, against the Athenians, being nearly all slain at their posts. The Thebans afterward basely took advantage of this heavy loss to pull down the walls of their city, and bring it under subjection, under the pretext of their having favored the Athenians. Phryne, the hetærist, was a native of this place, and here she caused the statue of Cupid, which she had received as a present from Praxiteles, to be set up, which added greatly to the prosperity of her native city, from the crowd of strangers who came to view this master-piece of art. The site of Thespiæ is at Eremo Castro, or, as Leake writes it, Rimokastro.

5. Eutresis, to the southeast of Thespiæ, and said to have been once the residence of Amphion and Zethus. It was situate on the road from Thespiæ to Platææ, and possessed a celebrated temple and oracle of Apollo. 6. Leuctra, likewise on

the road from Thespiæ to Platææ. It was famed for the victory obtained here by Epaminondas over the Spartans. From that moment the power and fame of Sparta began to decline, and after the second victory of Epaminondas over them at Mantinea in Arcadia, this state ceased forever to be the arbiter of Greece. The spot is now called Lefka (Λεύκα). Leake less correctly seeks to identify Lefka with the ancient Thespiæ. 7. Platee, one of the most ancient Beetian cities, situate at the foot of Mount Cithæron, and near the River Asopus, which separated its territory from that of Thebes. The Platæans withdrew at an early period from the Beetian confederacy, and placed themselves under the protection of Athens. Grateful for the aid afforded by that city, they sent one thousand soldiers to Marathon, who shared in the glory of that memorable fight. They also manned some of the Athenian vessels at Artemisium. Platee was famous for the great battle which took place in its vicinity, in which the Persians under Mardonius were defeated by the combined Greek forces under the Spartan Pausanias. The town had been burned by the army of Xerxes, but was rebuilt by the aid of the Athenians. In the third year of the Peloponnesian war, Platææ was taken and destroyed by the Peloponnesian forces. It was restored after the peace of Antalcidas, but again destroyed by the Thebans. Cassander rebuilt it together with Thebes. The ruins of this place are near the modern village of Kokhla. The River Asopus has already been mentioned (p. 480).

Mount Cithæron, at the foot of which stood Platææ, is an elevated ridge, dividing Bæotia first from Megaris, and afterward from Altica, and finally uniting with Mount Parnes and other summits which belong to the northeastern side of the province. It was dedicated, as Pausanias affirms, to Jupiter Cithæronius, and was celebrated in antiquity as having been the scene of many events recorded by poets and other writers. Such were the metamorphosis of Actæon, the death of Pentheus, and the exposure of Œdipus. Here also Bacchus was said to hold his revels with the satyrs and frantic bacchantes. The modern name is Mount Elatía, from the forests of fir $(k\lambda \delta \tau \eta)$ with which it is crowned.

8. Erythræ, to the east of Platææ, and the parent city of the flourishing colony of the same name in Ionia. The Grecian forces were stationed here previous to the battle of Platææ. 9. Scōlus, northeast of Platææ. Its territory was so rugged and unproductive that it gave rise to the proverb, "Never let us go to Scolus, nor follow any one thither." 10. Potniæ, to the north of Scolus, and about ten stadia from Thebes. Here

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was a sacred grove dedicated to Ceres and Proserpina. It was at Potniæthat Glaucus was said to have been torn in pieces by his infuriated mares. Gell makes its site nearly correspond with that of the modern village of Taki. 11. Thebæ, one of the most ancient and important cities of Greece, and the capital, in a general sense, of Bœotia. It was situated in the plain between Lake Hylice (now Lake Livadhi) on the north and a range of low hills on the south. Thebes was fabled to have been founded by Cadmus and a Phænician colony, and to have been called from him Cadmēa, a name which, in after days, was confined to the citadel only, standing as this did on the site of the earlier city. Around this citadel arose the later city, which was so disposed that the greater portion of it occupied the part north of the citadel. According to an ancient legend, the city was fortified by Zethus, and Amphion, the wonderful lyre-player, who, by his music, made the stones move and form the walls round the city.

Previous to the Trojan war, the city of Thebes was destroyed by the Epigoni, that is, the descendants of the seven Argive heroes who had been defeated by the Thebans, and from this destruction it does not appear to have recovered before that war, as it took no part in the expedition against Troy. In the time of Homer, however, who calls it a city "with seven gates" ($\xi \pi \tau \hat{a} \pi v \lambda_{0} c_{0}$), and gives it the epithet of εὐρύχορος, on account of the extensive plain which formed its territory, it appears to have been again in a flourishing condition. In 335 B.C. Thebes was destroyed a second time, by Alexander the Great, on whose accession to the throne of Macedonia it had revolted, and had attempted to shake off the Macedonian yoke. Of the lower city nothing was left on this occasion except the gates, the temples, and the house of Pindar the poet: six thousand inhabitants were killed, and thirty thousand sold as slaves. Twenty years afterward it was rebuilt by Cassander, with the generous aid of the Athenians, Messenians, and Megalopolitans. It suffered a third time in B.C. 291, under Demetrius Poliorcētes. Dicæarchus, who saw Thebes about this time or shortly after, has left us an interesting description of it. Its population about this time is supposed to have been between fifty and sixty thousand. After the Macedonian time, however, the city declined still more, and Sylla seems to have given it the last blow by depriving it of half its territory, which he assigned to the Delphians. Strabo remarks, that in his time it had scarcely the appearance of a village. The place which now occupies the ancient Cadmea is called Theba or Pheba, and in Turkish Stiva. The inhabitants of ancient Thebes were distinguished above all the other Greeks for rusticity, fierceness, and passion. Hence a Theban was always ready to settle any dispute by fighting rather than by the ordinary course of justice. The women were celebrated for their gentleness and beauty.

Near one of the gates of Thebes was a hill and temple consecrated to Apollo Ismenius. At the foot of this hill flowed the little stream of the *Ismenus*. According to Dodwell, the Ismenus has less pretensions to the title of a river than

the Athenian Ilissus, for it has no water except after heavy rains, when it becomes a torrent, and rushes into the Lake of Hylice, to the north of Thebes. The celebrated fountain of *Dirce* was also in the immediate vicinity of this city. Gell noticed a brook to the west of the Cadmea, by some Turkish tombs, which he considered to be the ancient Dirce. Beyond Dirce was Pindar's house. The fountain of Mars, said to have been guarded by the dragon slain by Cadmus, was above the temple of Apollo Ismenius.

12. Onchestus, northwest of Thebæ, and near the Lake Hy-It took its name from Onchestus, a son of Neptune, which deity had here a celebrated temple and grove. liartus, to the west, on the shore of the Lake Copais. Lysander, the Lacedæmonian, was slain in an engagement under the walls of this town. Having favored the cause of Perseus, king of Macedonia, it was taken by assault, sacked, and entirely destroyed by the Roman prætor Lucretius. The inhabitants were sold, and their territory was given to the Athenians. 14. Alalcomenæ, to the west of Haliartus, and celebrated for the worship of Minerva, thence surnamed Alalcomeneis. The temple of the goddess was plundered and stripped of its statues by Sylla. It was said that when Thebes was taken by the Epigoni, many of the inhabitants retired to Alalcomenæ, as being sacred and inviolable. The ruins of this place are near the village of Su-The mountain, at the foot of which stood the town, was named Tilphussius, and from it flowed a small stream called This stream is said to have caused the death of Tilphussa. the celebrated soothsayer Tiresias, in consequence of his drinking of its waters, which were extremely cold. 15. Coronea, to the west of the preceding, a city of great antiquity, having been founded, together with Orchomenus, by the descendants of Athamas, who came from Thessaly. Several important actions took place at different times in its vicinity, the chief of which was the battle gained by Agesilaus and the Spartans against the Thebans and their allies, 394 B.C. Near Coronea was a celebrated temple of Minerva Itonis, where the general council of the Bootian states assembled until it was dissolved by the Romans. The ruins of Coronea are observable near the village of Corunies, on a remarkably insulated hill. At the distance of forty stadia to the south of Coronea rose Mount Libethrius, one of the summits of Helicon, dedicated to the Muses and the Nymphs, hence called Libethrides. There was also a fountain named Libethrias.

16. Lebadea, to the northwest of Coronea, and toward the frontiers of Phocis. It is said to have derived its name from Lebadus, an Athenian, under whose conduct the inhabitants of the Homeric Midea removed from a neighboring height, and settled here in the lower ground. Lebadea was celebrated for its oracle of Trophonius, situate in a cave above the town, into which those who wished to consult it were obliged to descend, after performing various ceremonies. Lebadea was richly adorned with works of art, but was plundered by the troops of Mithradates. It is now Livadia, a name which is applied also to a large province, of which Bœotia forms merely a part. 17. Chæronēa, to the northwest of the preceding, a city of some consequence, and celebrated in history for the battle gained by Philip of Macedon over the Athenians and Bœotians. Several years after, this town witnessed another and bloodier engagement between the Romans under Sylla, and the troops of Mithradates commanded by Taxiles and Archelaus. The ruins of Chæronea are found at the village of Kapurna.

18. Orchomenus, on the western shore of the Lake Copais, and near the entrance of the Cephisus into that lake. It was the second city in Bœotia, and at one time even rivalled Thebes itself in wealth, power, and importance.

Its first inhabitants are said to have been the Phlegyæ, a lawless race. These, having been destroyed by the gods for their impiety, were succeeded by the Minyæ, who came apparently from Thessaly, and are commonly regarded as the real founders of Orchomenus, which thence obtained the surname of the "Minyan." At this period it was so renowned for its wealth and power that Homer represents it as vying with the most opulent cities in the world. These riches are said to have been deposited in a building erected for that purpose by Minyas, and which Pausanias describes as an astonishing work, and equally worthy of admiration with the walls of Tiryns or the pyramids of Egypt. Thebes was at that time inferior in power to the Minyan city, and in a war with Erginus, king of the latter, was compelled to become its tributary. As another proof of the wealth and civilization to which Orchomenus had attained, it is mentioned that Eteocles, one of its early kings, was the first to erect a temple to the Graces. Hence Orchomenus is called by Pindar the city of the Graces, and the most prevalent worship here was that of these divinities. Thirlwall says that the early legends about the Minyans may be considered as indications of a native race, apparently Pelasgians, overpowered by Æolian invaders. It was in the sixtieth year after the Trojan war that the Æolian Beotians, who had been expelled from Thessaly, drove out the Minyans from Orchomenus, which was then, with its territory, added to Bœotia, and joined the Bæotian confederacy. At and shortly before the time of the Peloponnesian war, we find Orchomenus one of the most powerful states of the Bœotian league, and having under it the towns of Chæronea and Tegyra. Its government was

oligarchical: the ruling order was called "Knights." It was destroyed by the Thebans in 368 B.C., but was rebuilt after the destruction of Thebes. Its ruins are to be seen near the modern village of *Scripu*. Near Orchomenus flowed the small river *Melas*, and in the marshes near the junction of this river with the Cephisus grew the auletic or flute reed, so much esteemed by the ancient Greeks for making flutes and other wind instruments. Pliny describes it as very long and without knots. Leake says they are still produced here in abundance.

19. Larymna, on the coast, and belonging originally to the territory of the Locri Opuntii. Near it the Lake Copais discharged its waters into the sea by subterranean passages. (Consult page 482, III., IV.) The precise spot where the stream issued from under ground was named Anchoë, and near it was a very deep lake. There were, strictly speaking, two places named Larymna, an upper or northern, and a lower. Leaving the sea in order to return to the Lake of Copais, we have to cross the ridge of Mount Ptous, celebrated in antiquity as the seat of an oracle and temple of Apollo. On its western slope, and near the shore of the Copaic Lake, stood, 20. Acraphia or Acraphium, which, according to Strabo, was looked upon by some writers as the Arne of Homer. It had a temple of Bacchus. Its remains are to be seen near the village of Karditza. 21. Copæ, a short distance to the north of the preceding, giving name to the Lake Copais, on which it stood, and situated near the deepest part of it. It contained temples of Bacchus, Ceres, and Serapis. The modern village of Topolia is on the ancient site, which Dodwell describes as a low, insular tongue of land, projecting from the foot of Mount Ptous. The Lake Copais was chiefly formed by the River Cephisus, and is now called the Lake of Topolia. Anciently, however, this lake received various names from the different cities situated along its shores. At Haliartus it was called Haliartius Lacus; at Orchomenus. Orchomenius. Homer and Pindar distinguish it by the name of Cephisis. That of Copais, however, finally prevailed, since Copæ, as already remarked, was situate near the deepest part of it. This was by far the most considerable lake in Greece, being not less than three hundred and eighty stadia in circuit. It was famous for its eels, which grew to a large size, and were esteemed highly by the epicures of antiquity. According to Dodwell, they are still held in high repute. For an account of the outlets of this lake, consult page 482. Tradition asserted that near Copæ there stood, in the time of Cecrops, two ancient

cities, named *Eleusis* and *Athenæ*, and Stephanus reports that, when Crates, by order of Alexander the Great, drained the waters which had overspread the plains, the latter town became visible.

22. Hyle, a small town, northeast of Thebes, mentioned more than once by Homer, and giving name to the Lake Hylice, now Livadhi or the Lake of Sénzina. Hyle appears to have been renowned for its manufacture of shields. The celebrated sevenfold shield of Ajax was made, according to Homer, by Tychius of Hyle. 23. Harma, northeast of Thebes, in the direction of Chalcis. It was said to have derived its name from the fate of Amphiaraus, who disappeared on that spot, together with his chariot (appa) and horses. 24. Mycalessus, an ancient city, to the northeast of Harma, and known to Homer. Its inhabitants were all cruelly butchered, during the Peloponnesian war, by some Thracian troops in the pay of Athens. 25. Aulis, to the northeast of the preceding, a sea-port celebrated as the rendezvous of the Grecian fleet when about to sail for Troy. Strabo remarks, that, as the harbor of Aulis could not contain more than fifty ships, the Grecian fleet must have assembled in the neighboring port of Bathys, which was much more extensive. Bathys is still called Vathi, and is described by Gell as an excellent harbor. 26. Salganeus, above Aulis, and an important post, as commanding the passage of the Euripus. 27. Anthēdon, northwest of the preceding, and on the coast. was celebrated for its wine. Dicearchus represents the inhabitants in his time as nearly all fishermen, and claiming descent from Glaucus, the sea-god. Near the sea was a spot called the leap of Glaucus. The Cabiri, according to Pausanias, were worshipped at Anthedon. 28. Tanagra, southeast of Thebes, and near the left bank of the Asopus. Its earlier appellation was Grea. An obstinate battle was fought in its vicinity between the Athenians and Spartans prior to the Peloponnesian war, in which the former were worsted. Tanagra was famous for its breed of fighting cocks. The modern village of Grimada or Grimála marks the ancient site.

29. Delium, to the northeast, close to the sea, and facing Eretria in Eubœa. It was celebrated for the battle which took place in its vicinity between the Athenians and Bœotians, when the former were totally routed. It was in this engagement

that, according to some accounts, Socrates saved the life of Xenophon, or, according to others, of Alcibiades. Some vestiges of it still remain near the village of *Dramisi*. 30. *Orōpus*, to the east of the preceding, and on the right bank of the Asopus. From its situation on the borders of Attica and Bœotia, this place was a continual subject of dispute between the two people. It is now called *Oropo*. 31. *Delphīnium*, a port at the mouth of the Asopus, sometimes called the Sacred Port (Ἱερὸς Λιμήν).

8. MEGÄRIS.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. Megăris, according to one tradition, derived its name from Megarus, a Bœotian chief, and a son of Apollo or Neptune. According to others, however, it had this name from the earliest historical times.

II. It was bounded on the north by Bacotia; on the west by the Sinus Corinthiacus; on the southwest by the territory of Corinth; on the south and southeast by the Sinus Saronicus, now the Gulf of Engia; and on the east and northeast by Attica.

III. Megaris is a rugged and mountainous country, and contains only one plain of small extent, in which the capital, *Megăra*, was situated. The rocks are chiefly, if not entirely, calcareous. The country is very deficient in springs. The extreme breadth on the Corinthian Gulf is reckoned by Strabo at one hundred and twenty stadia, and the area of the country is calculated by Clinton at seven hundred and twenty square miles.

Megaris was separated from Bæotia by the range of Mount Cithæron, and from Attica by the high land which descends from the northwest boundary of Attica, and terminates on the west side of the Bay of Eleusis in two summits, anciently called Kerāta (Κέρατα), or "the Horns," and now Kandili. It was divided from the Corinthian territory, on the southwest, by the Onean range of mountains, through which there were only two roads from Corinth into Megaris. One of these roads, called the Scironian Pass, was said to have been the haunt of the robber Sciron, who plundered travellers, and then threw them from the high rocks into the sea, until he was overcome and treated in the same way by Theseus. This narrow pass was situated between Megara and Crommyon, a small maritime town belonging to Corinth. The road followed the shore for the space of several miles, and was shut in on the land side by a lofty mountain range, while toward the sea it was lined by dangerous precipices. Pausanias reports that it was afterward rendered more accessible by the Emperor Hadrian, being made wide enough for two vehicles abreast. At present, however, it admits, according to Thiersch, only a single vehicle, except in a few places. Leake, on the other hand, says that it is only practicable by foot passengers:

The other road, following the coast of the Corinthian Gulf, crossed the Geranean Mountains, which belong to the Onean range, and led to Pagæ, on the Corinthian Gulf, and thence into Bœotia.

(B.) SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF MEGARIS.

I. According to the traditions preserved by Pausanias, Car, the son of Phoroneus, originally reigned at Megara, and was succeeded, after the lapse of twelve generations, by Lelex, who gave to the people the name of *Leleges*. Lelex was succeeded by Cleson, and Cleson by Pylas. By the marriage of Pylas with the daughter of Pandion, Megara became annexed to Attica; and there can be no doubt that Megaris also, in early times, belonged to Attica, since it is represented on the best authority that Megaris formed one of the four ancient divisions of Attica.

II. On the death of Pandion, Megaris fell to the lot of his son Nisus; but it was wrested from the Athenians during the reign of Codrus, when the Dorians invaded Attica. A Corinthian colony was settled at Megara, and the country was from this time regarded as a Dorie state. It remained for some time subject to Corinth; but it afterward asserted its independence, although at what time is uncertain. Its wealth and power rapidly increased, as is evident from the numerous colonies which it planted, of which the most important were Selymbria, Calchedon, and Byzantium, on the Bosporus and Propontis, and Hybean Megara in Sicily. The navy of Megara was once powerful enough to cope with that of Athens; and it was only after a long and obstinate struggle that the Athenians were enabled to recover the island of Salamis, which had been seized by the Megarians.

III. The government was originally in the hands of the great Dorian land-holders; but they were deprived of their power by Theagenes, who put himself at the head of the popular party, and obtained the sovereignty about B.C. 620. He adorned the city with several public buildings. He married his daughter to Cylon, who was assisted by him in his attempt to usurp the government at Athens. Theagenes was at length expelled from Megara; and shortly afterward a most violent struggle arose between the aristocratic and democratic parties, of which a vivid picture is drawn in the poems of Theognis, a native of Megara, who appears to have been born shortly before the death of Solon, and to have lived down to the beginning of the Persian wars.

IV. For some time after the Persian wars, Megara appears to have been constantly engaged in war with Corinth; and her enmity to Corinth was the occasion of her forming an alliance with Athens, about B.C. 461. Athenian garrisons were placed in Megara and Pegæ; but six years afterward the Megarians renounced their alliance with Athens, and put to death the Athenian garrison at Megara. In the seventh year of the Peloponnesian war, the democratic party formed a plan for surrendering the city to Athens, which was defeated by the arrival of Brasidas with a Lacedæmonian force. We read little more of Megara in Grecian history. In B.C. 357, democracy was again the established constitution. Megara was taken and almost destroyed by Demetrius; it was also taken by the Romans under Metellus. It suffered greatly in the invasion of Alaric; and its ruin was completed by the Venetians in 1687.

(C.) PLACES IN MEGARIS.

1. Megăra, the capital of Megaris, situate at the foot of two hills, on each of which a citadel was built. These hills were

named Caria and Alcathous. It was connected with the port of Nisæa by two walls, the length of which was about eight stadia, according to Thucydides. They were erected by the Athenians at the time when the Megarians placed themselves under their protection. The distance from Athens was two hundred and ten stadia, as we learn from Procopius. Chrysostom calls it a day's journey. Modern travellers generally reckon eight hours. Alaric, as already remarked, nearly ruined this once flourishing place. According to Pausanias, it was the only city of Greece which was not restored by Hadrian, in consequence of its inhabitants having murdered Anthemocritus, the Athenian herald. The site is occupied by the modern town of Megara. 2. Nisæa, the harbor of Megara, with a citadel called also Nisæa. This citadel was a place of considerable strength, as we learn from Thucydides, but might be cut off from the city by effecting a breach in the long walls. itself was sheltered by the small island of Minoa, which lay off In the time of Strabo, Minoa had become connected with the main land, and is called by him a promontory. 3. Paga, a port on the shore of the Mare Alcyonium, and the first place after leaving the Beetian frontier. It was occupied by the Athenians before the Peloponnesian war, and was used by them as a naval station. It is supposed to correspond to the modern harbor of Psatho. 4. Ægosthěnæ, placed by Cramer to the southeast of Pagæ, but by Leake to the northeast of it. To this place the Lacedæmonians retreated by a difficult road along the coast, after their defeat at Leuctra. Its site is marked by the modern village of Porto Ghermano. 5. Tripodiscus, at the foot of the Geranean chain of mountains, a part of the Onean It was the birth-place of Susarion, one of the earliest comic poets of Greece.

9. ATTICA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Attica ('Αττική) derived its name, according to some, from Atthis; a daughter of Cranaus, one of the earliest kings of the country. Others, however, deduced it from Acté (ἀκτή, "shore"), in allusion to its maritime situation and great extent of coast; and, according to these, the country itself was actually known by the appellation of Acte, even before the reign of Cranaus.

II. It is more than probable, however, that the name Attica contains the element Atth or Ath, which we observe in the words Atth-is and Ath-enæ.

III. Attica may be considered as forming a triangle, the base of which is common also to *Bæotia*, while the two sides lie upon the sea, and the vertex is formed by the Promontory of *Sunium*. The prolongation of the western side, till it meets the base at the extremity of Cithæron, served also as a common boundary to Attica and Megaris. Hence Attica may be said to be bounded on the north and northwest by Bæotia, and on a part of its western side by Megaris, and the rest of the country to be washed by the sea.

(B.) DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTRY.

I. A wild and rugged, though not a lofty range of mountains, bearing the name of Cithæron on the west, and of Parnes toward the east, divides Attica from Bœotia. A considerable part of the range of Parnes is covered with forests of pine, oak, arbutus, and wild pear trees. Lower ridges, branching off to the south, and sending out arms toward the east, mark the limits of the principal districts which compose this little country, the least proportioned in extent of any on the face of the earth to its fame and its importance in the history of mankind.

II. The most extensive of the Attic plains, though it is by no means a uniform level, but is broken by a number of hills, is the *Athenian*, or that in which Athens itself lies, at the foot of a precipitous rock, and in which, according to the Attic legend, the olive, still its most valuable production, first sprang up. It is bounded on the east by Mount *Pentelicus*, and by the range which, under the names of the greater and the lesser *Hymettus*, advances till it meets the sea at the Promontory of *Zoster*.

III. The upper part of Pentelicus, which rises to a greater height than Hymettus, was distinguished, under the name of *Epacria* or *Diacria*, as the Attic Highlands. This range, which, after trending eastward, terminates at the Promontory of *Cynossema*, forms with Mount Parnes and the sea the boundary of the plain of *Marathon*.

IV. On the eastern side of Hymettus, a comparatively level tract, separated from the coast by a lower range of hills, seems to have been that which was called *Mesogæa*, or the midland country, and is still termed *Mesógia*. The hills which inclose it meet in the mountainous mine district of *Laurium*, and end with the Promontory of Sunium, the southernmost foreland of Attica.

V. The tract on the coast, between Sunium and Cape Zoster, a range of low hills and undulating plains, was designated by the name of *Paralia*, or the seacoast district.

VI. On the western side, the plain of Athens is bounded by a chain of hills, issuing from Parnes, and successively bearing the names of *Icarius*, *Corydallus*, and *Ægalčus*, as it stretches toward the sea, which, at the Promontory of *Amphiale*, separates it by a channel, a quarter of a mile in width, from the island of *Salamis*. It parts the Athenian from the *Eleusinian* plain, in which stood the city of Eleusis.

VII. The chief part of the Eleusinian plain was called the *Thriasian* by the ancient writers, from the demus of *Thria*, and extended between the range of Ægaleus and Eleusis, along the borders of the bay, and to the north of it. This plain and the *Rarian*, which last also formed part of the Eleusinian, were remarkable for their fertility, and were celebrated in the Attic mythology as the soil which had been first enriched by the gifts of Ceres, the goddess of harvests.

VIII. Attica is, on the whole, a meagre land, wanting the fatness of the Bœotian plains, and the freshness of the Bœotian streams. The waters of its principal river, the *Cephisus*, are expended in irrigating a part of the plain of Athens; and the *Ilissus*, though no less renowned, is a mere brook, which is sometimes swollen into a torrent. It could scarcely boast of more than two or three fertile tracts, and its principal riches lay in the hearts of its mountains, in the silver of Laurium, and the marble of Pentelicus. It might also reckon among its peculiar advantages the purity of its air, the fragrance of its shrubs, and the fineness of its fruits.

IX. But in its most flourishing period the produce of Attica was never sufficient to supply the wants of its inhabitants, and their industry was constantly urged to improve their ground to the utmost. Traces are still visible of the laborious cultivation which was carried, by means of artificial terraces, up the sides of their barest mountains. After all, they were compelled to look even to the sea for subsistence. Attica would have been little but for the position which it occupied as the southeast foreland of Greece, with valleys opening on the coast, and ports inviting the commerce of Asia. From the top of its hills the eye surveys the whole circle of its islands, which form its maritime suburbs, and seem to point out its historical destination.

X. As to the ancient population of Attica, it is difficult to come to any satisfactory conclusion. Clinton considers that, about B.C. 317, it may have been five hundred and twenty-seven thousand six hundred and sixty, a large population for such a territory (being above seven hundred to the square mile), even if we take into account that it contained a populous city. At the present day, Attica is one of the eparchies of the actual kingdom of Greece. It contains one city, Athens, and above one hundred villages. The population is not known.

(C.) SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF ATTICA.

I. If we want any proof as to the remote antiquity of political communities in Attica, and its occupation at some time by a people not of the same Greek stock as those of the age of Pericles, we may find it in the names of mountains, streams, and places. The names of mountains and rivers are in all countries the most permanent memorials of a nation's existence. Many Attic names can be explained from the Greek language as known to us, and others can be traced to personal names which belong to the circle of the Greek mythi. But there still remain many which we can only explain by a comparison of Greek words with those of kindred languages, or which we can not explain at all: such are Ceph-isus, Il-issus, Hym-ettus, Bril-essus or Bril-ettus, Garg-ettus, Parn-es (compare Parn-assus), Braur-on, Marath-on, Sun-ium, &c.

II. Another proof of the remote antiquity of settlements in Attica is found in the numerous political divisions, of which traces remained in the historical period. The oldest political division of Attica known by tradition was that by Cecrops into twelve parts, the names of which, with a few exceptions, belong to that class of words which the Greek language can not explain. Another division into four parts, among the four sons of Pandion, has a distinct reference to the physical divisions of the Attic peninsula, including in this term Megaris,

which afterward fell into the hands of the Dorians. That there is an historical fact contained in the division of the peninsula among the four sons of Pandion appears from there being three great natural divisions of Attica after the separation of Megaris, which three divisions formed the ground-work of the three political parties in the time of Pisistratus. These parties were the Diacrii or Hyperacrii, the inhabitants of the mountainous northeast region and the range of Parnes; the Men of the Plain (under which name the plain of Athens, and probably the Eleusinian also, are included), and the Parali, or inhabitants of the Paralia (sea-coast), to which we have already referred.

III. A division into four tribes $(\phi v \lambda at)$, and also a division into four castes, is attributed to Ion. This division into four tribes remained until the time of Clisthenes, who increased the number to ten. These ten were called *Hippothoontis*, Antiochis, Cecropis, Erechtheis, Pandionis, Leontis, Ægeis, Acamantis, Œneis, and Æantis. The ten tribes were subdivided into one hundred and seventy-four demi $(\delta \tilde{\eta} \mu o t)$ or townships, each demos apparently containing a town or small village. Under Macedonian influence two tribes were added, Antigonia and Demetrias, but these were afterward changed to Ptolemais and Attalis. A new tribe was added in honor of Hadrian.

IV. The first period of Athenian history, ending with the war of Troy, is of a mythical character. Actæus was the first king of Attica. Cecrops, according to one fable, was a native of Attica, who married the daughter of Actæus, and succeeded to the monarchy; according to another fable, he was an Egyptian, who brought from Egypt the arts of social life, and laid the foundation of the religious and political system of the Athenians. Of the successors of Cecrops, Erechtheus the first, otherwise called Erichthonius, was of divine or unknown descent. A second Erechtheus fought with the Eumolpidæ of Eleusis, and lost his life. Ægeus, the son of the second Pandion, in the course of time came to the throne; and his son Theseus, as he was the last, so he was the greatest of the Athenian heroes. As the reputed founder of the Athenian polity, who united into one confederation the twelve hitherto independent states or cities of Attica, established by Cecrops, he appears to be invested with the character of an historical personage.

V. If we endeavor to trace the history of the Athenian people, we find the obscurity of their origin expressed by the statement that they were Autochthones, sprung from the earth, or a people coeval with the land which they inhabited. Herodotus says that the Athenians were originally Pelasgi, and that they became changed into Hellenes, or Greeks. Such a change implies the conquest of the country by one race, while it was already in possession of another; it implies, also, either the amalgamation of the conquered and the conquering races, or the extinction of those who were compelled to yield. The former is supported by more probabilities. Xuthus, the son of Hellen, married a daughter of the second Erechtheus, and became the father of Acheus and Ion; and thus the name Ionian became attached to the Attic soil. We have the historical fact that the names of the four tribes which existed till the time of Clisthenes were supposed to be derived from the names of the four sons of Ion.

VI. The line of Athenian kings, whatever may have been its historical commencement, terminated with Codrus, when the office of king ceased at Athens, and the supreme executive power was vested in an archon or governor, whose office, from being at first hereditary and for life, was by degrees changed into a decennial, and finally into an annual office. When the last change took place, a further alteration was made by distributing the duties of the archon among nine magistrates instead of giving them all to one. From the death of Codrus

to the legislation of Solon, Athenian history presents but few and doubtful facts; and though the personality of Solon, and his framing of a code, can not be matters of doubt, yet the events of his life belong to that epoch where the records of history are still obscure and disputed. With the legislation of Solon (B.C. 594) Athenian history begins to assume a more definite form, and the same epoch marks the historical commencement of that series of events which brought the inhabitants of the countries east of the Tigris into connection with the south of Europe.

VII. The history of Athens now becomes more or less intimately connected with that of Greece in general, of which we have elsewhere given a rapid sketch (page 468, seqq.). Its political history during and after the age of Alexander is of little importance. The city was often involved in the revolutions and movements of the Macedonian kingdom; but, on the whole, it enjoyed internal tranquillity to the time of the Roman occupation of Greece, which it owed chiefly to the control exercised by the various rulers of Macedonia. Soon after the death of Alexander the Lamian war broke out, in which the city showed almost the last feeble spark of that military spirit, which once led it to triumph over the armies of the East. The result of the campaign was the occupation of Munychia by a Macedonian garrison (B.C. 322); and the death of Phocion, which took place soon after, left Athens without a representative of her ancient statesmen.

VIII. Cassander, having got possession of Athens (B.C. 317), appointed Demetrius of Phalerum, supported by a Macedonian garrison, the governor of the city. During ten years Demetrius secured to Athens, if not prosperity, at least repose. During the subsequent wars between the last Philip of Macedon and the Romans, the Athenians, together with Attalus, king of Pergamus, took the part of the foreign invaders. Athens, though weak in the field, was still strong within her walls; the Macedonian king attacked both the Piræus and the city before the Romans could come to their assistance; but, failing in his object, he turned his vengeance against the suburbs, and the numerous beautiful temples which adorned the Attic plain. There can be no doubt that the invasion of Philip was most destructive to the monuments of Attica, though Eleusis and Athens itself escaped.

IX. The next great calamity of Athens was its capture by the Romans under Sylla (B.C. 86). This was the first time that the fortifications of Athens had been forced by an enemy. Sylla demolished the walls of the Piræus, together with the great arsenal of Philo, and from this time the commerce of Athens was annihilated. Under Roman government, Athens, though she had lost her political power and her commerce, was still the centre of the arts and of philosophy, and a favorite residence of the wealthy Romans. From the time of Julius Cæsar to that of Hadrian, it was occasionally honored by the visits of the masters of the Roman world, and to them it owed much of that splendor which Pausanias admired in the second century of our era. The gradual decay of its buildings has been attributed, with good reason, partly to the decline of paganism, and to the slow though gradual progress of the new faith.

(D.) PLACES, &C., IN ATTICA.

Athēnæ, now Athens ('A $\theta\tilde{\eta}\nu a\iota$), the capital of Attica, situated about five miles from the coast, and occupying part of the central plain of Attica, together with some heights, which run down into the plain. Of these eminences the most conspicuous

are Mount Lycabettus, with its peaked summit, on the northwest of the city; erroneously called Anchesmus by Leake; the Acropolis, or citadel; the Areopăgus, opposite to the west end of the Acropolis; and the hill of the Museum, the highest eminence on the south. On the east of the city, the little river Ilissus ran in a southwest direction, separating the heights of Athens on the west from the higher and more continuous range of Hymettus on the east. This little river, which, in its natural state, may have reached the marshy lands near the coast, is now reduced by the heats of summer, and the channels for artificial irrigation, to an inconsiderable stream. Another river, the Cephisus, ran due south, past the western side of the city, at the distance of about a mile and a half from the walls. This is also nearly exhausted at present by the cuts for irrigation before it reaches the neighborhood of the Piræus. Athens had three harbors, Piraus (the largest), Munychia, and Phalerum, and it was connected with these by Long Walls, as they were called (Μακρά Τείχη), which abutted on the city, respectively, at the hill of the Museum and the Gate of the Piræus. A more particular account of these walls will be given further on. The whole circuit of the city proper was about forty three stadia, or a little over five English miles. That of Athens, with its three harbors, however, was, according to Thucydides, in B.C. 431, not less than one hundred and seventy-four stadia, or about nineteen or twenty miles. The population in the time of Xenophon appears to have been one hundred and twenty thousand for the city proper.

TOPOGRAPHY OF ATHENS.

We have little or no information respecting the size of Athens under its earliest kings. It is generally supposed, however, that, even as late as the time of Theseus, the town was almost entirely confined to the Acropolis and the adjoining hill of Mars. Subsequently to the Trojan war it appears to have increased considerably both in population and extent, since Homer applies to it the epithets of $\epsilon i k \pi t /\mu \epsilon v \sigma_{\alpha}$ and $\epsilon i \nu \rho v \delta \gamma v \iota \sigma_{\alpha}$. These improvements continued probably during the reign of Pisistratus, and, as it was able to stand a siege against the Lacedæmonians under his son Hippias, it must evidently have possessed walls and fortifications of sufficient height and strength to insure its safety.

The invasion of Xerxes, and the subsequent irruption of Mardonius, effected the entire destruction of the ancient city, and reduced it to a heap of ruins; with the exception only of such temples and buildings as were enabled, from the solidity of their materials, to resist the action of fire and the work of demolition. When, however, the battles of Salamis, Platæa, and Mycale had averted all danger of invasion, Athens, restored to peace and security, soon rose from its

state of ruin and desolation. And having been furnished, by the prudent foresight and energetic conduct of Themistocles, with the military works requisite
for its defence, it attained, under the subsequent administrations of Cimon and
Pericles, to the highest pitch of beauty, magnificence, and strength. It was in
the time of Pericles that Athens attained the summit of its beauty and prosperity, both with respect to the power of the republic, and the extent and magnificence of the architectural decorations with which the capital was adorned.
We will now proceed to mention some of the structures and places in ancient
Athens worthy of more particular notice.

1. Pompēum, near the Piræic gate, and so called from its containing the sacred vessels (πομπεῖα) used in certain processions. In it were also a statue of Socrates by Lysippus, and several paintings. 2. The Ceramicus, one of the most considerable and important parts of the city, and so called, most probably, from some potteries anciently situated there. It was divided into the Outer and Inner Ceramicus. The former was without the walls, and contained the tombs of those who had fallen in battle and were buried at the public expense. communication from the one Ceramicus to the other was by the gate Dipylum. 3. The Agora. There were two Agora, the Old and the New. The Old Agora formed part of the Ceramicus. The New was in a quarter of the city which had previously belonged to the demus of Eretria. The change was made from the Old to the New Agora after the former had been defiled with massacre by Sylla. 4. Stoa Basileios, or Royal Portico, so called because the archon basileus, or king archon, held his court here. Its roof was adorned with statues of baked clay. This structure was in the Ceramicus. 5. Metroum, also in the Ceramicus. It was a temple consecrated to the mother of the gods, whose statue was the work of Phidias. Here the archives of the state were deposited, and it served also as a tribunal for the archon eponymus, or chief archon. 6. Boulcuterium (Βουλευτήριου), or Senate-house, adjacent to the Metroum. Here the Senate of Five Hundred, who formed the annual council of the state, had their meetings. It contained statues of Jupiter the counsellor, of Apollo, and the Athenian Demos. 7. Thölus, a building close to the preceding, and where the Prytanes held their feasts and sacrifices. It was also called Scias. 8. Poecile Stoa (Ποικίλη Στοά), so called from the celebrated paintings which it contained. Its more ancient name is said to have been Peisianactius. The pictures were by Polygnotus, Micon, and Pamphilus, the most famous among the Grecian painters, and represented the battle of Theseus against the Amazons, and that of Marathon, as well as other achievements of the Athenians. It was in this portico that Zeno first opened his school, which from this place derived its name of Stoic, or the school of the Porch. Leake supposes that some walls which are still to be seen at the church of Panaghia Fanaromeni are the remains of this celebrated structure.

9. Macra Stoa, a range of porticoes extending from the vicinity of the Stoa Basileios to the Poecile. Behind it rose the hill of Colonus Agoraus, where Meton erected a table for astronomical purposes. 10. Thesaum, the celebrated temple of Theseus, erected to that hero after the battle of Marathon, when Cimon was sent to the island of Scyros to convey his remains thence to Athens. It stood north of the Macra Stoa. This great edifice, which was held by the Athenians in the highest veneration, and possessed an inviolable sanctuary, was built about 465 B.C., under the direction of Cimon. Its precincts were so extensive as to contain on certain occasions a large military assembly. In the interior it was decorated with pictures representing the achievements of Theseus, his battle with the Amazons, and the fight of the Centaurs and Lapithæ.

It was built of Pentelic marble, and is still one of the best-preserved public buildings of Athens. It stands upon an artificial foundation formed of large quadrangular blocks of limestone.

11. Hadriani Stoa, or Portico of Hadrian, one of the monuments with which that emperor embellished Athens. It stood east of the Theseum. 12. Horologium Andronici Cyrrhesta, or the Water Clock of Andronicus Cyrrhestes, called likewise the "Tower of the Winds." It was an octagonal structure, erected to indicate, by means of dials on its walls, the hour of the day when the weather was clear, and by means of water when it was cloudy. It also denoted the quarter whence the wind blew. The water clock was supplied with water by an aqueduct from the spring under the cave of Pan, on the northwest corner of the Acropolis. The figures of the eight winds were cut in relief on the exterior wall of the building, with their names above them on the frieze. On the top of the tower was a Triton of bronze, which moved round with the wind, and indicated by a rod the quarter whence it blew. Beneath the figures of the winds were traced solar dials. The structure still remains, and the celebrated Delambre bears testimony to the correctness of the dials, which he describes as the most curious existing monument of the practical gnomonics of antiquity. Stuart found traces of the Clepsydra or water clock carefully channeled in the original floor.

13. Hadriani Arcus, or the Arch of Hadrian, which formed an entrance to the southeastern quarter of the city. It stood near the peribolus of the Olympeum. The structure was of Pentelic marble, and consisted of a circular arch with Corinthian columns. Remains of it still exist, and an inscription shows that the emperor gave his name to the part of the city between this edifice and the Ilissus, this quarter being called Hadrianopolis. 14. Olympēum, one of the most ancient and magnificent of the sacred edifices of Athens. It was a temple of Jupiter Olympius, begun by Pisistratus, B.C. 530, and completed by Hadrian, A.D. 145. The building of this temple went along with the course of the national existence of Athens. Athens ceased to be independent before the structure was completed. Sixteen columns of Pentelic marble, sixty feet high, and above six and a half in diameter, are all that now remain of the one hundred and twenty-eight which once adorned this magnificent building. The whole length of the structure was three hundred and fifty-four feet, and the breadth one hundred and seventy-one feet. The fountain called Callirrhoë, or Enneacrunus (the nine springs), the only source of fresh water in the neighborhood, was a short distance from the southeast angle of the great temple.

15. Via Tripŏdum, or the "Street of the Tripods," so called from its being lined with small temples where prize tripods were usually deposited. Of this description was the beautiful little choragic monument of Lysicrates, erected about 334 B.C.; and vulgarly called the Lantern of Demosthenes. This still remains, and stands between the southeast angle of the Acropolis and the Olympeum. 16. Lenæum, a temple of Bacchus, a most ancient sanctuary, and probably the same to which Thucydides alludes as the temple of that god in Limnis (tv Λίμναις). It stood in a southwestern direction from the monument of Lysicrates. 17. Bacchi Theatrum, or Theatre of Bacchus, called also the Temple of Bacchus, to the north of the preceding, and near the southeast angle of the Acropolis. In this theatre, which, according to Dicæarchus, was the most beautiful in existence, the dramatic contests were decided, and dramatic exhibitions held. From Plato we may collect that it was capable of containing thirty thousand spectators. From the level of the plain a semicircular excavation gradually ascended up the slope of the hill to a considerable height, while the part

which projected into the plain was formed of masonry. Round the concavity were the seats for the audience, rising range above range; and the whole was topped and inclosed by a lofty portico, adorned with statues, and surrounded by a balustraded terrace.

18. Odēum Periclis, not far from the preceding. It was a musical theatre, said to have been constructed in imitation of the tent of Xerxes. Plutarch informs us that it was richly decorated with columns, and that the roof terminated in a point. It was set on fire by Aristion, general of Mithradates, who defended Athens against Sylla; but it was afterward restored at the expense of Ariobarzanes, king of Cappadocia. 19. Odēum Regilla, another musical theatre, on the southwest side of the Acropolis. It was erected by Herodes Atticus, and named after his deceased wife Regilla. This Odeum was built in the second century of our era, and was the finest building of the kind in Greece.

20. Acropòlis. The Cecropian citadel, or old Cecropian fortress, which forms so conspicuous a feature in the topography of Athens. It was situated on an elevated rock, rising abruptly from the plain, and precipitous on every side except at the western end, where it was alone accessible. Here stood the magnificent Propylaa, of Pentelic marble, which served both as an approach and a military defence to the citadel. It consisted of a great vestibule, with a front of six Doric columns; behind which was another, supported by as many pillars of the Ionic order. These formed the approach to the five gates, or entrances to the citadel. On each side were two wings, projecting from the great central colonnade, and presenting a wall simply adorned with a frieze of triglyphs. This great structure is said to have been five years in progress, and to have cost two thousand talents. It was much injured in 1656 by an explosion of gunpowder. Some portions, however, still remain. The government has lately cleared the whole of the beautiful entrance, and again opened the five ancient doorways which gave admission into the Acropolis.

21. Parthënon, or Temple of Minerva, the virgin goddess $(\pi a \rho \theta \acute{e} v o c)$, and situate on the highest level of the Acropolis. It was built of Pentelic marble, and occupied apparently the site of an older temple called Hecatompedon, also dedicated to Minerva, and which had been destroyed in the Persian invasion. The Parthenon was built during the administration of Pericles (about B.C. 450-440). The architect was Ictinus. The statue of the goddess, according to Pliny, was twenty-six cubits high, and was of ivory and gold. It was the work of Phidias. This temple, after having been beautified and repaired by the Emperor Hadrian, continued from his days almost entire, until 1687, when the roof was destroyed by a bomb fired from the Venetian army under Morosini, which fell upon a part of the structure that had been converted into a powder magazine. The columns suffered much damage also in the late war. The remnant of the sculptures which decorated the pediments, with many of the metopes and a large part of the frieze, are now in the Elgin collection of the British Museum.

22. Erechthèum, a beautiful Ionic temple, dedicated to Erechtheus, and situate on the western side of the Acropolis. Adjoining it was the temple of Minerva Polias, the tutelary deity of the city, whose statue is said to have been a common offering of the demi before they were collected into one metropolis by Theseus. The lamp which was suspended in the sanctuary was never suffered to be extinguished. Another part of this compound building was the Pandrosēum, or chapel sacred to Pandrosus, one of the daughters of Cecrops. The Erechtheum contained the olive-tree produced by Minerva in her contest with Neptune, as also the well of salt water created by the latter. Not far from the Erechtheum was the bronze colossal statue of Minerva Promachus, or the Defender, the work

of Phidias. The spear and helmet of this colossal figure were visible, towering above the Acropolis, to those who approached Athens by sea, as soon as they had rounded Cape Sunium. The whole of the Acropolis was surrounded by walls raised on the natural rock. The most ancient part of these fortifications was constructed by the Pelasgi, and is often mentioned under the name of Pelasgicum, an appellation including also a portion of ground below the wall at the foot of the rocks of the Acropolis. The wall termed Pelasgicum was apparently on the northern side of the citadel.

23. Areopagus, or Hill of Mars, a little distance to the northwest of the Acropolis. It received its name from Mars having been, as was said, the first person tried there, for the murder of Halirrhothius, the son of Neptune. The celebrated court which was here held sat in an open space, in which was an altar dedicated to Minerva Areia, and two rude seats of stone for the defendant and his accuser. From Vitruvius we learn, that at a later period this space was inclosed, and roofed with tiles. 24. Pnyx, in the days of Athenian greatness, the usual place of assembly for the people, especially during elections. It appears to have been situated on a rising ground to the southwest of the Areopagus, and in a line with the Propylea of the Acropolis, which faced it to the east. It was also close to the city wall. The celebrated Bema, from which the orators addressed the people, was a simple pulpit of stone, which at first looked to the sea, but in the time of the thirty tyrants it was turned toward the interior of the 25. Musēum, another elevation in the same vicinity, to the southwest of the Acropolis, and so called from the poet Musæus, who was buried there. At a later period, a monument was erected here by Philopappus, a descendant of the kings of Commagene, and who, having been consul under Trajan, retired to Athens, as we learn from the inscription on the structure.

26. Melite, a demus south of the Acropolis, and both populous and well frequented. 27. Colyttus, another demus, lying to the northeast of the Acropolis. The children of this quarter were remarkable for being very precocious in their speech. 28. Eleusinium, on an island formed by the Ilissus, to the southeast of the Acropolis. It was a temple of Ceres and Proserpina, set apart for the celebration of the lesser Eleusinian mysteries. 29. Stadium Panathenaicum, northeast of the preceding, and on the left bank of the Ilissus. It was erected for the celebration of the games during the Panathenaic festival by Lycurgus, the son of Lycophron, as we find in Plutarch's life of that orator. Pausanias describes it as an astonishing structure rising in the shape of an amphitheatre above the Ilissus, and extending to the banks of that river. The area of this building still remains entire, together with other vestiges. 30. Lyceum, a sacred inclosure dedicated to Apollo, where the polemarch formerly kept his court. It lay above the preceding to the northeast, and was decorated with fountains, plantations, and buildings, and became the usual place of exercise for the Athenian youths who devoted themselves to military pursuits. Nor was it less frequented by philosophers and those addicted to retirement and study. We know that it was more especially the favorite walk of Aristotle and his followers. 31. Cynosarges, a spot consecrated to Hercules, and possessing a gymnasium and groves frequented by philosophers. It is supposed to have been situate at the foot of Mount Anchesmus. Here was the school of the Cynics. 32. Academia, situate in the outer Ceramicus, and about six stadia from the gate Dipylum. It was originally a deserted and unhealthy spot. But Hipparchus surrounded it with a wall, and it was afterward adorned with groves, walks, and fountains by Cimon. Here Plato possessed a small house and garden, and from this place his school derived its name of the Academy. Sylla, during the 552

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siege of Athens, is said to have cut down the groves of this celebrated spot. A little to the northwest of the Academy was the demus of Colonus, named Hippeios, from the altar erected there to the equestrian Neptune, and rendered so celebrated by the play of Sophocles as the scene of the last adventures of Œdipus.

33. Longi Muri (Μακρά Τείχη), the celebrated walls which connected Athens with its several ports. They were first planned by Themistocles after the termination of the Persian war; but he did not terminate this great undertaking, which was completed by Cimon and Pericles. One of these walls was called the Piraïc, and sometimes the Northern Wall, and was forty stadia in length. The other was called the Phaleric or Southern Wall, and was thirty-five stadia. The height of these walls was forty cubits, and they were broad enough for two wagons to pass. In the Peloponnesian war, we learn from Thucydides that the exterior or Piraïc wall alone was guarded, as that was the only direction in which the enemy could advance, there being no passage to the south and east of Athens except through a difficult pass between the city and Mount Hymettus, or by making the circuit of that mountain, which would have been a hazardous undertaking. The long walls remained entire about fifty-four years after their completion, till the capture of Athens by the Peloponnesian forces, eleven years after which Conon rebuilt them, with the assistance of Pharnabazus. In the siege of Athens by Sylla, they were again broken down and almost entirely destroyed. Some vestiges of this great work still remain.

Maritime Athens may be considered as divided into the three quarters of Piræus, Munychia, and Phalerum, which formed the three ports of Athens, going from west to east. We shall now consider these in order. 1. Piraus was the great dockvard of the Athenians, and the chief harbor for the vessels engaged in the corn and other foreign trade. It contained large warehouses, public arsenals, the armory of Philo, several temples, a theatre, of which some traces remain, a long portico or arcade (μακρά στοά) analogous to the bazars of the eastern cities, and other buildings. The port was subdivided into three lesser havens, named Cantharus, Aphrodisium, and Zea. The first was appropriated to dock-yards, and was probably the innermost of the three. The second was the middle or great harbor; while the outermost was Zea, so called from the grain imported from the Hellespont and other parts, and deposited in storehouses erected there for that purpose. The Piræus was thickly inhabited. The modern name is Porto Drako, or Leone, derived from a colossal figure of a lion in white marble, which once stood upon the beach, but was removed by the Venetians in 1687. 2. Munychia, now Stratiotiki, is described by Strabo as a peninsular hill, connected with the continent by a narrow neck of land. When inclosed by fortified lines, Munychia became a most important station. 3. Phalerum, now Port Phanāri, was the most ancient of the Athenian ports, but after the erection of the docks in the Piræus it ceased to be of any importance in a maritime point of view. It was, however, inclosed within the fortifications of Themistocles, and gave name to the southernmost of the long walls.

Having now terminated the description of Athens, with its suburbs and dependencies, we will proceed to give some account of the coast of Attica from the Piræus as far as the Megarian frontier. Leaving Eëtionea, we come to, 1. The little islands of Psyttalea and Atalante. The former is celebrated in history for the destruction of a corps of Persians by the Greeks, under the command of Aristides, during the battle of Salamis. It is now called Lipsocoutalia. Atalante bears the name of Talantous. In the same vicinity was Cynosūra, a promontory mentioned by the oracle delivered to the Athenians prior to the battle of Salamis. 2. Above this part of the coast rises Mount Corydallus, now Daphni Bouni, said to have been the haunt of the robber Procrustes. 3. Amphiate Promontorium, near which were some stone quarries noticed by Strabo. 4. At a little distance from the shore are two islets, named Pharmacusæ, in the largest of which Circe was said to have been interred. 5. Above this coast rises Mount Ægaleus, from the summit of which Xerxes beheld the action of Salamis. The modern name is Skaramanga. Following the coast we come next to the Thriasian plain, taking its name from the demus of Thria, and celebrated for its fertility, which Aristotle ascribes to the south wind that blew from the sea.

7. Eleusis, near the mouth of the Eleusinian Cephisus, so called to distinguish it from the other Cephisus which flowed near Athens. It was a very ancient city, and was said to have existed already in the time of Cecrops. In very early times it appears to have been an independent state of some importance, and to have carried on a war with Athens, by the result of which it became subject to that city. Eleusis owed its celebrity in the historical age to its being the principal seat of the worship of Ceres, and here were celebrated the famous mysteries in honor of that goddess and her daughter Proserpina, which it was death to divulge. These mysteries were abolished by the Emperor Theodosius. The temple of the Eleusinian Ceres was a magnificent structure, and the mystic cell in which

the celebration took place was capable of containing as many persons as a theatre. Within the temple was a colossal statue of Ceres, the bust of which was brought to England in 1802 by Dr. Clarke, and is now in the vestibule of the public library at Cambridge. The temple was entirely destroyed by Alaric, A.D. 396, and has ever since remained in ruins. A modern village, on the site of the ancient city, is called *Lefsina*. The Rarian plain, near Eleusis, was celebrated as the one in which Ceres was said to have first sown corn. It was famed for its fertility, and is even now remarkably productive.

Opposite the Eleusinian coast was the island of Salămis, anciently called also Sciras and Cychrea, from the heroes Scirus and Cychreus, and Pityussa, from its abounding in firs. It was celebrated from the earliest period of Grecian history for the colony of the Æacidæ, who settled there before the siege of Troy. The possession of this island was once obstinately contested by the Athenians and Megarians. It fell, at length, in the time of Solon, into the hands of the former people, and continued after this always subject to them. On the invasion of Xerxes, the Athenians removed hither with their families, and in the strait between this island and the main land was fought the famous naval battle in which the Persians were completely defeated. A trophy was erected on the island, opposite to Cynosura, where the strait is narrowest. Strabo informs us that this island contained two cities, namely, Old and New Salamis. The former was situate on the southern side, and opposite to Ægina, and was deserted in his time. The latter was on a bay, formed by a neck of land which advanced toward Attica. Salamis is now, or was very recently, called Colouri: the modern name of the city is Ambelakia.

Returning to the Piræus, we will now describe the coast of Attica below this port. 1. Colias Promontorium, celebrated for its earthenware. Here was a temple consecrated to Venus Colias, and the goddess named Genetyllis. This promontory is now commonly called Trispyrgoi. 2. Æxōne, lower down, whose inhabitants were so addicted to slander and calumny that alξωνεύς became a term for "a slanderer." The site is still called Axaona. 3. Passing by the small island Hydrusa, now Cambonisi, and the Zoster Promontorium, which has already been referred to (page 485), we come to Thore, near the modern village of Bari, off which lies the island Phaura, now Phlega. 4. Anaphlystus, lower down, a town of some note, with a harbor and fortifications. Its site is marked by the modern village of Anaphiso. The Astypalea Promontorium is now Cape Anaphiso, forming one of the sides of the harbor of the same name. Opposite is the island of Eleusa, now Elissa.

5. Laurium, celebrated for its silver mines, was a range of

hills extending from that part of the Attic coast which we have now reached to the promontory of Sunium, and thence to Prasiæ, on the eastern coast. In Strabo's time, the metallic veins were nearly exhausted. A full account of these mines is given by Boeckh, in the Memoirs of the Berlin Academy (1814–1815, p. 89, seqq.). 6. The Promontory of Sunium has already been mentioned (p. 485). Near it stood a town of the same name, with a harbor. Off the coast in this quarter, and a little to the west, is an insular rock, called the island of Patroclus anciently, and now Gaidaro-Nesi, or "Ass's Island." At some distance to the south of this is the island of Belbina, now S. Giorgio d'Arbora.

7. Panormus, the first harbor on the eastern coast after doubling Sunium. 8. Thoricus, to the north, now Thoriko. It was fortified by the Athenians toward the close of the Peloponnesian war. Opposite Thoricus, and extending down to Sunium, was a deserted and rugged island named Helena, and which Strabo makes the Cranaë of Homer. Pliny calls it Macris. The modern name is Macronisi, or "Long Island." 9. Prasiæ, to the north, now Port Raphti. The Hyperborean offerings were brought to this place, where there was a temple of Apollo, and conveyed hence to Delos. 10. Brauron, celebrated in mythology as the spot where Iphigenia first landed after her escape from Tauris with the statue of Diana. From this circumstance the goddess was here held in peculiar veneration under the title of Brauronea. The statue of the goddess was carried off by Xerxes. The ruins of Brauron are near the spot now called Palaio Braona.

11. Passing Cynosūra Promontorium, now Cape Cavala, we come to Myrrhīnus, so called from the numerous myrtles which grew there. 12. Marāthon, to the northeast, memorable for the victory which the Athenians under Miltiades gained in the adjacent plain over the Persian forces, B.C. 490. The plain is about five miles in length and two in breadth. Marathon is about three miles from the sea. According to Dodwell, it is eighteen miles in a direct line from Athens to the village of Marathon, which still preserves its ancient name. The plain of Marathon was watered by a small stream, called Asopus by Ptolemy, which forms marshes near the sea, in which, according to Pausanias, a great many of the Persians perished. The

Athenians who fell in the battle were buried in the plain; and also, but apart from the Athenians, the Platæans, Bœotians, and slaves. A large tumulus of earth still rises from the centre of the plain; and near the sea there are two others, much lower than the former.

13. Rhamnus, on the coast, and sixty stadia to the north of Marathon. It was so named from the plant rhamnus, which grew there in abundance. The goddess Nemesis was particularly worshipped here, and is hence called by some of the Latin poets "Rhamnusia Virgo." The temple of the goddess contained a statue of her, said to be one of the finest works of Phidias. It was of colossal size, and Parian marble. The site of this town now bears the name of Vræo Castro.

Returning to the interior, we come to Mount Hymettus, to the southeast of Athens. This celebrated mountain forms the southern portion of the considerable chain, which, under the several names of Parnes, Pentelicus, and Brilessus, traverses nearly the whole of Attica from northeast to southwest. It was divided into summits, one of which was Hymettus properly so called; the other, Anhydros, or the dry Hymettus. The former is now Trelovouni; the latter, Lamprovouni. Hymettus was famous for its fragrant flowers and excellent honey. It produced also marbles much esteemed by the Romans. The honey of Hymettus is still held in high estimation.

To the north of Hymettus was Alopèce, not far from Cynosarges, and consequently close to Athens. It was the demus of Aristides and Socrates. To the northeast of Hymettus was Gargettus, the birth-place of Epicurus, supposed to correspond to the modern Krabato. Above Gargettus was Mount Pentelicus, celebrated in antiquity for its beautiful marble. The modern name is Penteli. It surpasses in elevation the chain of Hymettus, with which it is connected. To the north was a range of hills called Mount Brilessus, and now Turkovouni. A little distance to the southwest of Hymettus was the demus of Acharna, the most considerable of the Attic boroughs, and which furnished alone three thousand heavy-armed men for the service of the state. This circumstance induced the Lacedæmonians to ravage the territory of Acharnæ, with a view of provoking the Athenian troops to quit the walls of their city and hazard an engagement. Aristophanes, in the play which takes its title from this demus, represents the Acharnians as charcoal burners. Other comic writers stigmatized them as rough and boorish. The ruins of the town of Acharnæ are near the modern Menidi.

To the north of Acharnæ was the demus and fortress of *Decelēa*, about one hundred and twenty-five stadia from Athens, and the same distance from the Bœotian frontier. This town was always considered of great importance, from its situation on the road to Eubœa, whence the Athenians derived most of their

supplies. When, therefore, by the advice of Alcibiades, it was occupied and garrisoned by a Lacedæmonian force, the Athenians became exposed to great loss and inconvenience. Thucydides reports that Decelea was visible from Athens. Gell describes it as situate on a round, detached hill, connected by a sort of isthmus with Mount Parnes. This last-mentioned mountain, to the north of Decelea, was famous for its wines. Its prolongation formed part of the northern frontier. The modern name is Nozea. To the southwest was the fortress Phyle, a place celebrated in the history of Athens as the stronghold of Thrasybulus and his little band of patriots, before they moved downward to the vicinity of Athens, and succeeded in freeing their native country from the yoke of the thirty tyrants. It is now Bigla Castro, according to Gell, who says it is situated on a lofty precipice, and, though small, must have been almost impregnable, as it can only be approached by an isthmus on the east. Dodwell, however, makes the modern name Argiro Castro. The town of Phyle was at the foot of the fortress.

More to the west, and on the road from Eleusis to Platææ, was the city of *Eleuthëræ*, which appears to have once belonged to Bœotia, but finally became included within the limits of Attica. Pausanias reports that the Eleutherians were not conquered by the Athenians, but voluntarily united themselves to that people, from their constant enmity to the Thebans. Bacchus was fabled to have been born here. The ancient site is thought to correspond to the modern *Gypto Castro*. Gell, however, seeks to identify this with the ancient *Œnoë*, which was contiguous to Eleutheræ.

Having completed our description of Attica, we will now proceed to give a brief account of Eubœa, as this island was more or less closely connected in its history with that of Attica.

EUBŒA.

(A.) SITUATION, NAMES, & c.

I. Eubaa, now Egripo or Negropont, is an island of the Ægean, extending from the Sinus Maliacus, now Gulf of Zeitoun, along the coasts of Locris, Besotia, and Attica, from which it is separated by a narrow channel called the Euripus. It is this latter name which, by a series of corruptions, has given its modern appellation to the island, namely, Euripus, Euripo, Egripo, Negröpont.

II. The most ancient name of this large and celebrated island was Macris, given it from its length, which is so great in comparison with its breadth. Besides this, it was known at different times by the various appellations of Oche, Ellopia, Asopis, and Abantia. The last of these names it derived from the Abantes, who are named as its inhabitants by Homer.

III. The name Eubwa is probably derived from the good pastures with which the island abounded ($\epsilon \tilde{v}$ and $\beta o \tilde{v}_{\tilde{v}}$); although some deduced it from the legend of Io, who was said to have given birth to Epaphus in this island.

IV. The abundance and fertility of this extensive island in ancient times are sufficiently attested by Herodotus, who compares it with Cyprus, and also by Thucydides. Its opulence is also apparent from the designation and value af-

fixed to the talents so frequently referred to by the classic writers, under the name of Euboic.

V. Modern computation gives the length of Eubœa as ninety miles, and its extreme breadth thirty. In one part, however, between Aliveri Bay, below the ancient Tamynæ in the southern part of the island, and Port Petries on the eastern coast, it is scarcely four miles across from shore to shore.

VI. The island generally is elevated, and contains among its mountains some of the highest in this part of Europe. Mount Delfi, the ancient Dirphys or Dirphossus, rises on the eastern side, to the northeast of Chalcis, to the height of seven thousand two hundred and sixty-six feet above the sea, and its summit is scarcely ever free from snow; Mount Elias, the ancient Ocha, near Carystus, at the southern extremity, is four thousand seven hundred and forty-eight feet high; Mount Khandili, a little distance above Chalcis, on the western shore, is four thousand two hundred feet; and Mount Plokovouni, the ancient Telethrius, at the upper part of the island, is three thousand two hundred feet.

(B.) SKETCH OF EUBGEAN HISTORY.

I. The first inhabitants of this island were probably a Pelasgic race, who are said to have occupied, before the historical times, most of the islands of the Ægean Sea. The Dryopes from Mount Œta were said to have founded Carystus and Styra; and the Athenians founded Chalcis and Eretria at a very early period. Homer calls the inhabitants of Eubœa by the name of Abantes, and mentions them as having taken a very distinguished part in the expedition against Troy. The Hestiæots were said to be a colony of the Perrhæbi, a Pelasgic tribe; but the Athenians appear to have been, from a very remote epoch, the principal colonizers of the island.

II. At the dawn of the historical times, we find Chalcis and Eretria two independent but allied towns, which had advanced to a high state of prosperity. holding dominion over the islands of Andros, Tenos, and Ceos, and sending colonies to the coasts of Macedonia and Thrace, as well as to the shores of Italy and Sicily. Naxus, the first Greek settlement in Sicily, and Cumæ, one of the oldest in Italy, were colonies of Chalcis. Eretria and Chalcis, however, quarrelled, and Thucydides mentions the war between these two states as one of the oldest wars on record among the Greeks. This war was not, however, one of extermination, and we find, in the sixth century B.C., the two communities still flourishing under the government of their Hippobota, or wealthier citizens. Unfortunately for them, they co-operated with Cleomenes in his invasion of Attica, which followed the expulsion of the Pisistratidæ; in consequence of which, after the Athenians had repulsed Cleomenes, they invaded Eubœa, about 506 B.C., defeated the Bœotians, who had come to the assistance of Chalcis, and, having taken the latter city, punished it severely, put many of the citizens into fetters until they ransomed themselves, confiscated all the property of the Hippobotæ, and gave their lands to Athenian colonists, whom they sent over to the island to the number of four thousand.

III. Eubœa now became, in a great measure, a dependency of Athens. Afterward the Eubœans, together with the Athenians, sent assistance to the Ionians of Asia in their war against Darius Hystaspis, and their troops were among those which burned Sardis, B.C. 499. The first invasion of Greece was the consequence of that expedition. The satraps, Datis and Artaphernes, landed in Eubœa with an immense force, completely destroyed Eretria, and sent its inhabitants as slaves into Asia. At the end of the Persian war, we find the Athenians under Cimon making war against the Carystians, who had revolted, and

reducing them to subjection. A general revolt of Eubœa against Athens broke out in 445 B.C., but Pericles, with five thousand regular troops, marched into the island, and recovered possession of it. The towns of Eubœa were reduced to the condition of tributaries to Athens, and an Athenian colony was settled at Oreus, in the northern part of the island.

IV. Eubœa was of great importance to the Athenians; it furnished them with corn, supplied them with horses, and was considered of more value to them than all their other colonies put together. During the Peloponnesian war, after the defeat of the Athenians in Sicily, another general revolt of Eubœa took place, and the island placed itself under the protection of Lacedæmon, but afterward returned to the Athenian allegiance. In the general prostration into which the principal states of Greece fell after the death of Epaminondas, Eubœa seems to have been left, in a great measure, to itself. Its principal towns came under the rule of chiefs, or tyrants, as they were called, without any interference on the part of the Athenians.

V. About 350 B.C., Callias and Taurosthenes, who were ruling in Chalcis, sons of the late tyrant Mnesarchus, made overtures to Philip of Macedon in order to have his assistance in subduing the rest of the island, an opportunity which was eagerly seized by Philip. Plutarch, who was at the same time tyrant of Eretria, applied to the Athenians to check Philip's interference. The Athenians sent an expedition under Phocion, who defeated the Chalcidians after hard fighting; but this led to no favorable result, as Callias remained in possession of Chalcis, and the Macedonian influence was established over the island.

VI. When the Romans began to extend their influence to Greece, Chalcis and the other towns of Eubœa contracted an alliance with Rome, and remained steadfast to that alliance during the Ætolian war. Chalcis afterward submitted to Antiochus, and was finally destroyed by the Romans. In the dismemberment of the eastern empire by the Latins or Franks, the Venetians obtained possession of Eubœa, but lost it again in 1470. The island now forms part of the new kingdom of Greece.

(C.) PLACES IN EUBŒA.

Beginning at the upper part of the island, we come to, 1. Histiæa, near its northeastern extremity, and one of the most considerable of the Eubœan cities. It fell into the hands of the Athenians on the termination of the Persian war, and having subsequently attempted to revolt, was severely punished, the inhabitants being driven out, and Athenian colonists sent to supply their place. According to Strabo, the Histiæans withdrew on this occasion to Macedonia. The name of the place was now changed to Oreus, which was at first that of a small settlement dependent on Histiæa, at the foot of Mount Telethrius. This city was in ruins in Pliny's time. Leake places its site near the modern village of Oreos. 2. Artemisium, to the southwest, a celebrated promontory, off which the Greeks fought their naval battle with the Persian fleet prior to the action at Salamis. It has already been referred to (page 485).

Beyond was the Cenæan Promontory, forming the extreme point of the island to the northwest (page 485).

3. Athenæ Diades, a little to the east of the Cenæan Promontory, and founded, according to Strabo, by an Athenian colony. The modern name is Port Calos. 4. Cerinthus, lower down, near a small river named Budorus. The hamlet of Geronda appears to mark its site. 5. Ædepsus, lower down, on the western coast. Near it were some celebrated warm springs, consecrated to Hercules. The spot still retains the name of Dipso. The warm baths are a mile above it. 6. Ægæ, lower down, and celebrated for the worship of Neptune. According to Strabo, this place gave name to the Ægean Sea. The site is now called Akio. 7. Orobiæ, below the preceding, and famed for an oracle of Apollo Selinuntius. This place suffered severely from an earthquake during the Peloponnesian war. It probably occupied the site now called Rovies.

8. Chalcis, the most celebrated and important city of Eubœa, founded by an Ionian colony from Athens shortly after the siege of Troy. Some account of it has already been given in the sketch of Eubæan history, and of the numerous colonies sent forth from it at an early period. The Chalcidians, after the termination of the Persian war, became dependent on Athens with the rest of Eubea, and did not regain their liberty till the close of the Peloponnesian war, when they asserted their freedom, and, aided by the Bootians, fortified the Euripus, and established a communication with the continent by throwing a wooden bridge across the channel. Towers were placed at each extremity, and room was left in the middle for one ship only to pass. This work was undertaken 410 B.C. From the advantages of its situation and the strength of its works, Chalcis was considered in the latter period of the history of Greece as one of the most important fortresses of that country, and hence we find it a frequent object of contention between the Romans and Philip, son of Demetrius, who termed it one of the fetters of Greece. According to the epitomist of Livy, it was eventually destroyed by Mummius for having aided the Achæans against Rome. It was restored by Justinian, and in the Middle Ages assumed the name of Euripos, which was, in process of time, corrupted to Egripo or Negropont, the modern appellation of the whole island as well as that of its capital.

le videte?

OBS. The Euripus, a channel between Eubœa and the mainland, was remarkable for the rapid changes of its tides. Several of the ancients have reported that the tide in this strait ebbed and flowed several times in the day, and as many times during the night, and that the current was so strong as to arrest the progress of ships in full sail. Livy, however, attributes the variableness of the current to the effect of winds, which were so violent as to cause the sea to rush through the channel like a mountain torrent. Modern accounts do not uphold Livy's account, but are rather in favor of the popular notion. The breadth of the Euripus, according to recent authorities, is diminished by a rock in mid-channel, on which a fort is built, thus dividing it into two channels; that toward the main land, though rather the broader, is only practicable for small boats, as there is not more than three feet water at any time. Between the rock and the walls of the city of Egripo or Negropont is a distance of thirty-three feet, and the least depth at the highest water is seven feet. It is here, say modern writers, that the extraordinary tides take place, for which the Euripus was once so noted. At times, the water runs as much as eight miles in an hour, with a fall under the bridge of about one and a half feet; but what is most singular is the fact that vessels lying one hundred and fifty yards from the bridge are not in the least affected by this rapid. It remains but a short time in a quiescent state, changing its direction in a few minutes, and almost immediately resuming its velocity, which is generally from four to five miles an hour either way, its greatest rapidity being, however, always to the southward. No satisfactory explanation has yet been given of these singular changes.

9. Eretria, to the southeast of the preceding, and a city of very early origin, said to have been founded by an Ionic colony from Athens. Mention of its early commercial prosperity, and the colonies established by it, has been made in the sketch of Eubœan history; and also of its subsequent capture and destruction by the Persians, in the reign of Darius Hystaspis. It was subsequently rebuilt, and again became flourishing, though at a later period it fell under the dominion of tyrants. The Romans made it a free town. Eretria, according to Strabo. was famed for the excellence of its flour and bread. Its ruins are still seen at a spot called Castri. 10. Tamynæ, to the east, noted for an ancient temple of Apollo, said to have been erected by Admetus. Its site is now occupied by the village of Ghymno. 11. Dystus, to the southeast, now Disto. 12. Porthmus, lower down, probably the modern harbor of Bufalo. 13. Styra, now Stoura, founded by some Athenians belonging to the demus of Stiria. 14. Carystus, at the foot of Mount Ocha, in the lower extremity of the island, and now Castel Rosso. It was a place of great antiquity, having been founded, as was said, by some Dryopes, who were driven from their country by Hercules. It was taken and plundered by Datis and Artaphernes, and subsequently had heavy contributions laid upon it by Themistocles,

which induced it to take up arms against the Athenians. This difference, however, was eventually settled. This place fell into the hands of the Romans during the Macedonian war. Carystus was principally celebrated for its marble, which was highly esteemed and much used by the Romans. The spot whence the marble was obtained was termed *Marmarium*, where a temple was erected to Apollo Marmarius. Asbestos was also found in the territory of Carystus, which was woven into garments, and cleansed by the action of fire. Carystus was also famed for its fish. The promontories of Geræstus, Caphareus, &c., have already been mentioned (page 485).

PELOPONNĒSUS.

(A.) NAME.

I. Peloponnēsus (Πελοπόννησος) is commonly supposed to mean the "Island of Pelops" (Πέλοπος νῆσος), and answers to what is now called the *Morea*. It is a peninsula, comprehending the most southern part of Greece, and would be an island were it not for the Isthmus of Corinth.

II. The word *Peloponnesus* does not occur in Homer. The original name of the peninsula appears to have been *Apia*, the origin of which has been much disputed. When the house of the Pelopidæ held the supremacy, the peninsula was sometimes called *Argos*, a name which Homer in some cases employs in this same sense.

Obs. 1. The Peloponnesus is said to have derived its name from Pelops, who is reported by the later Greek mythologists to have been of Phrygian origin. Thucydides, however, simply observes that he came from Asia, and brought great wealth with him. He married Hippodamia, the daughter of Enomaus, king of Pisa, in Elis, and succeeded to his kingdom. Pelops is said to have subsequently extended his dominion over many of the districts bordering upon Elis, whence the whole country obtained the name of Peloponnesus. Agamemnon and Menelaus were descended from him.

2. The name Apia is said to have been derived from Apis, an ancient monarch, and son of Apollo. Some modern scholars, however, make it signify "a far-distant land" ('A $\pi i\eta$, from $i\pi o$), as used by the Greeks before Troy in speaking of their native land far away over the waters. Buttmann, again, thinks that this name is connected with that of a most ancient people, who inhabited the European coasts of the Mediterranean.

(B.) EXTENT, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. Strabo estimates the breadth of the peninsula at fourteen hundred stadia from Cape Chelonatas, now Cape Tornese, its westernmost point, to the isthmus, being nearly equal to its length from Cape Malea, now Cape St. Angelo, to Egium, now Vostizza, in Achaia.

II. By some of the ancient writers the Peloponnesus was supposed to resemble the leaf of the plane-tree, being indented by numerous bays on all sides. The modern appellation *Morea* is derived either from the supposed resemblance of the peninsula to a mulberry leaf, or from the mulberry trees introduced in modern times to supply the silk-worms with food.

III. The Peloponnesus is bounded on the north by the Sinus Corinthiacus, on the west by the Mare Ionium, on the south by the Mare Libycum, and on the east by the Mare Myrtoum and Egæum. The indentations along its coasts form five large bays, namely, the Cyparissius Sinus, now Gulf of Arcadia; the Messeniacus Sinus, now Gulf of Coron; the Laconicus Sinus, now Gulf of Colokythia; the Argolicus Sinus, now Gulf of Nauplia; and the Saronicus Sinus, now Gulf of Engia.

IV. Peloponnēsus contains but one small lake, that of Stymphālus, now the Lake of Zaraka. Its principal mountains are Cyllēne, on the confines of Arcadia and Achaia; Erymanthus, in Arcadia; Olēnus, in the same country, and Taÿgētus, in Laconia. Its principal rivers are the Alphēus, running through Arcadia and Elis; the Eurōtas, in Laconia; and the Pamīsus, in Messenia. These will be more particularly alluded to hereafter, and have already been referred to.

V. The Peloponnesus was subdivided into the following countries: 1. Corinthia. 2. Achaia. 3. Elis. 4. Messenia. 5. Laconia. 6. Argölis. 7. Arcădia.

1. CORINTHIA.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. Corinthia was a small, but wealthy and powerful district at the entrance of the Peloponnesus, deriving its name from Corinthus, its capital city.

II. It was bounded on the north by the Sinus Corinthiacus, on the south by Argolis, on the west by Argolis and Achaia, and on the east by the Sinus Saronicus.

III. The Corinthian territory was fertile and well watered. The fountain of *Pirēne*, on the Acrocorinthus, a high hill overhanging the city, was celebrated by the poets; but, in the time of Hadrian, the inhabitants were so little satisfied with the springs in the vicinity of the capital, that they induced the emperor to supply them with water from the Stymphalus by means of an aqueduct twenty miles long.

IV. The neck of land between the Corinthian and Saronic Gulfs was called the *Isthmus of Corinth*, and in its narrowest part can not be less than six modern Greek miles (not quite five English), whence the modern name of *Hexamili* applied to a village and tower in this quarter. A more particular account of the isthmus will be given hereafter.

(B.) PLACES IN CORINTHIA.

1. Corinthus, the capital, built upon a level to the north of a steep and high hill, called the Acrocorinthus, which served as a citadel, and was included within the wall. Corinth, from its favorable situation between two arms of the sea, the Corinthian and Saronic Gulfs, became the most wealthy emporium of Greece. Its opulence, and the confluence of merchants from all parts, favored every thing which ministered to the gratification of the senses, and both architecture and the other arts were, according to the testimony of the ancients, cultivated here with the greatest success. Corinth had three ports, Lechaum, Cenchrēæ, and Schænus. Lechæum, the nearest of them, was on the Corinthian Gulf, and was connected with the city by two parallel walls, which were partly destroyed by the Lacedæmonians B.C. 393. This harbor, which Leake conceives to have been for the most part artificial, is now nearly filled up, all that remains of it being a lagoon near the supposed site. The harbor of Cenchreæ was on the Sinus Saronicus, but does not appear to have been connected with the city. It was, however, a more considerable place than Lechæum, and contained several temples. The modern name is Cechrias (Kexpiais). A few miles to the north of Cenchreæ was a small bay called Schenus, forming the third harbor. Here was the narrowest part of the isthmus; and a kind of land-carriage, called the Diolcus, was established from the harbor of Schoenus to the eastern extremity of Port Lechæum, and ships were run ashore at one of these points, and dragged to the other sea. This work existed in the time of Aristophanes; but in the Peloponnesian war it appears they had a method of transferring naval operations from the Corinthian to the Saronic Gulf without dragging their ships across the isthmus. A little to the south of the Dioleus was a wall, which was always guarded when any danger threatened the Peloponnesus. The site of Scheenus is now called Cocosi. Corinth is now called Córintho, or by an abbreviation Gortho.

SKETCH OF CORINTHIAN HISTORY.

I. The earlier name of Corinth was Ephyra, and under this name it was one of the seats of the Æolic race. Even in the time of Homer it was called "the wealthy," an epithet which it acquired from the commercial spirit of its inhab-

itants, occasioned by the favorable situation of the place, already alluded to, which threw all the inland carrying trade of Greece into its power, while the difficulty of weathering Cape Malea (which was proverbial) made it the emporium of most of the trade between Asia and Italy.

II. About thirty years after the Dorian invasion of the Peloponnesus, that is, about 1074 B.C., Ephyra fell into the power of Aletes, the son of Hippotes, a Heraclid, who had slain a soothsayer on the passage from Naupactus, and had been compelled to separate himself and his followers from the army of the Dorians. The city then assumed the name of Corinthus, or the Corinthus of Jupiter, and the Æolian inhabitants became a subject class, though not altogether deprived of their civic rights. The descendants of Aletes ruled Corinth for five generations with royal power; but at length a rigid oligarchy was substituted for the monarchical form of government, and the power was vested in prytanes, chosen annually from the powerful Heraclid clan of the Bacchiadæ. The members of this clan intermarried only with one another, and consequently kept aloof from all immediate intercourse with their fellow-citizens, whom, besides, they did not treat with much forbearance.

III. In the year 660 B.C., Cypselus, an opulent citizen of Æolian descent, putting himself at the head of the lower orders, overthrew the oligarchy without much difficulty, and assumed the sovereign power. His son Periander, who succeeded to his authority, occupies a very prominent place in the early history of Greece. His reputation for wisdom (by which we must understand that practical wisdom which consists in governing men) procured him a place among the seven sages of Greece. Upon his death in 579 B.C., his power devolved on one of his relatives, who, after three years, was deposed by the Lacedæmonians. The former constitution was then restored, but doubtless much modified, and Corinth remained an oligarchical state till the beginning of the fourth century B.C.

IV. In the Peloponnesian war, which was in some measure brought about by them, the Corinthians were stanch supporters of the Lacedæmonians, and the bitterest enemies of Athens. Like the other states of Greece, Corinth felt the influence of the Macedonian power, and was garrisoned by Macedonians under Antigonus, but liberated by Aratus. The Corinthians took the lead in the Achæan confederacy, and were at first allies of the Romans, but at last the temptation held out by the wealth of the place, and the pretext furnished by some insults which the Corinthians had offered to the Roman embassy, led to the destruction and plunder of the city by L. Mummius, in 146 B.C., according to an express decree of the Roman Senate. Many works of art were destroyed, but some of the finest pictures and statues were removed to Rome, and contributed to encourage a taste for the fine arts in Italy.

V. Corinth was restored by Julius Cæsar about one hundred years after its conquest by Mummius, and peopled with freedmen, who enjoyed the privileges of a *Colonia*. Little now remains of the ancient city but the ruins of a Doric temple, probably the oldest existing specimen of that style.

VI. The colonies of Corinth were very numerous, but, as has been justly remarked by Müller, they were all sent out from Lechæum, and confined to seas west of the isthmus. The most celebrated were Syracuse and Corcyra. Potidæa, in Pallene, however, is an exception to Müller's remark.

2. Crommyon, on the Saronic Gulf, east of Scheenus, and celebrated in mythology as the haunt of a wild boar destroyed

by Theseus. The little hamlet of Kinetta is generally thought to occupy its site, though Leake makes them to be at some distance from each other. 3. Tenea, in the interior of Corinthia, south of Corinthus, said to have been colonized by some Trojan captives brought from Tenedos by the Greeks. It was also celebrated as the place where Œdipus was brought up by his supposed father Polybus. Its inhabitants could likewise boast that the greater part of the colonists who followed Archias to Syracuse were their fellow-citizens. This small town became latterly so prosperous that it assumed a government of its own, distinct from that of Corinth; and having wisely submitted, in the first instance, to the Roman power, it was preserved from the destruction which overwhelmed that unfortunate city. We shall terminate our account of Corinthia by some remarks on the Isthmus of Corinth.

ISTHMUS OF CORINTH.

The tediousness and expense attending the usual mode of drawing ships across the isthmus, by means of machinery, from Schenus to Lechæum, led to frequent attempts, at various periods, for effecting a junction between the two seas; but all proved equally unsuccessful. According to Strabo, Demetrius Poliorcetes abandoned the enterprise, because it was found that the two gulfs were not on the same level. We read of the attempt having been made before his time by Periander and Alexander, and, subsequently to Demetrius, by Julius Cæsar, Caligula, Nero, and Herodes Atticus. Lucian informs us that Nero was deterred from proceeding by a representation made to him, similar to that which Demetrius received, respecting the unequal levels of the two seas. He adds, however, a more probable reason; the troubles, namely, that were excited by Vindex in Gaul, and which occasioned the emperor's hasty return from Greece to Italy. Travellers inform us that some remains of the canal undertaken by the Roman emperor are yet visible, reaching from the sea, northeast of Lechæum, about half a mile across the isthmus.

We hear, also, of various attempts made to raise fortifications across the isthmus for the Peloponnesus when threatened with invasion. The first undertaking of the kind was made before the battle of Salamis. Many years after, the Lacedæmonians and their allies endeavored to fortify the isthmus from Cenchreæ to Lechæum agaist Epaminondas, but this measure was rendered fruitless by the conduct and skill of that general, who forced a passage across the Oneian Mountains. Cleomenes also threw up trenches and lines in order to prevent the Macedonians under Antigonus Doson from penetrating into the peninsula.

The Isthmus of Corinth derived great celebrity from the games which were held there every five years in honor of Palæmon or Melicerta, and subsequently of Neptune.

2. ACHAIA.

(A.) NAME, & C.

I. Achaia was first called Ægialus, either from a hero of that name, or, more probably, from the maritime situation of the country (αἰγιαλός, "shore"), since it lay along the southern shore of the Corinthian Gulf. Its earliest inhabitants were a Pelasgic race, who became afterward blended with a large Ionian colony, and the name of the country was then changed to Ionia, and also Ægialean Ionia.

II. Eighty years after the war of Troy (B.C. 1104), when the Dorian invasion of the Peloponnesus took place, a numerous body of Achæi, driven from Laconia and Argolis, retreated to Ægialean Ionia, drove out the Ionians, and gave the country the name of *Achaia*.

III. After the Roman conquest of Greece, the term Achaia received an extension in its signification, principally due to the importance which the Achæan league had obtained. The Roman province of Achaia was then formed, comprehending all Peloponnesus, with northern Greece south of Thessaly. But it is extremely difficult to fix the precise limit between the province of Achaia and that of Macedonia to the north of it.

(B.) BOUNDARIES.

Achaia, including Sicyonia, was bounded on the north by the Sinus Corinthiacus, on the south by Arcadia and Elis, on the east by Corinthia, and on the west by the Mare Ionium. Sicyonia, though, strictly speaking, not forming a part of Achaia, yet seems, from its early admission into the Achæan league, to belong naturally to this country.

(C.) SKETCH OF ACHEAN HISTORY.

I. The Achæi are first mentioned by Homer as the ruling people of the eastern and southeastern part of the Peloponnesus. From comparing Homer with Strabo and Pausanias, we may infer that the Achæi came from Thessaly, and that, at the time of the Trojan war, according to Homer's notion, they were the ruling nation in a large part of the Peloponnesus, and the chief people in the war against Troy. Eighty years after the war of Troy (B.C. 1104), the Dorians from the north drove the Achæi from Laconia and Argolis. Those who did not leave the country became an inferior caste, and entered into the condition of a conquered people; but a large part retreated to Ægialean Ionia, and expelled the Ionians. From this date the name of Achaia was given to that province.

II. The history of the Achæans forms an inconsiderable part of the general history of Greece till about B.C. 251. During the invasion of Greece by the

Persians they took no part in the battles of Marathon, Salamis, and Platæa, nor during the long war of twenty-seven years did they take any thing more than a forced share in this protracted struggle between Athens and Sparta. At the commencement of this war (B.C. 431), they were, with the exception of Pellene, neutral; but afterward favored the Lacedæmonian interest, in compliance with the general feeling that prevailed in the peninsula.

III. During the struggles of the southern Greeks against the successors of Alexander, the Achæans still wished to remain neutral; but, like all weak spectators of a contest in which they refuse to engage, they became the prey of the victorious party, and suffered under the Macedonians all the evils of anarchy and civil war. There would be little in the whole history of the Achæan states to attract attention were it not for the feudal union which arose out of these discordant elements.

IV. Four of the western states of Achaia, namely, Dyme, Patræ, Tritæa, and Pharæ, seeing the difficulties in which Antigonus Gonatas, king of Macedonia, was involved, formed a union for mutual protection B.C. 281. Five years afterward, Ægium ejected its garrison, and Bura killed its tyrant, which examples moved Iseas, who was then tyrant of the neighboring town of Cerynea, to surrender his authority and save his life. These three towns joined the new league. In B.C. 251, Aratus, having delivered Sicyon, which was not properly an Achæan town, brought it over to the confederacy. In B.C. 243, Corinth was added to the confederacy, and Megara, Epidaurus, and Træzene joined it not long after. Other accessions, including Sparta herself, followed. But the Romans, having humbled Philip II. of Macedonia, and reduced him to the rank of a dependent king, proceeded to weaken the power of the confederacy, which was easily effected by the Roman and anti-Roman parties that had for some time been growing up in the Greek cities. The league finally fell with the destruction of Corinth by the Roman general Mummius, and the Roman province of Achaia, already referred to, was established.

(D.) PLACES IN ACHAIA.

1. Sicyon, capital of the district Sicyonia, and one of the oldest cities in Greece. It is said to have existed, under the names of Ægialea and Mecone, long before the arrival of Pelops in the peninsula. The Sicyonians were conquered by the Dorians and Heraclidæ, and afterward, during the Peloponnesian war, espoused the cause of Sparta. This city was celebrated for its wealth and luxury, and also for its manufacture of slippers. These last were highly esteemed by the effeminate and luxurious. The modern name of Sicyon is Basilico. A short distance to the southeast was the River Asopus, now Basilico, on whose banks were celebrated the games instituted by Adrastus in honor of Apollo. 2. Crossing the Sythas, now Xylo Castro, we come next to Pellene, situate on a lofty and precipitous hill, about sixty stadia from the sea. The Pellenians alone first aided the Lacedæmonians in the Peloponnesian war. They were frequently engaged in hostilities with their

neighbors the Phliasians and Sicyonians. Pellene was celebrated for its manufacture of woollen cloaks, which were given as prizes to the riders in the gymnastic games held there in honor of Mercury. The ruins of this place are near the modern Tricala. The harbor of Pellene was Aristonauta, so called from the Argonauts having touched there in the course of their 3. Ægīra, to the northwest, called at an earlier period Hyperesia, but which changed its name, according to Pausanias, from the following circumstance. The Ionians, who had colonized the city, being attacked by a superior number of Sicyonians, collected a large herd of goats, and, having tied fagots to their horns, set them on fire, when the enemy, conceiving the besieged to have received re-enforcements, hastily withdrew. From these goats (ἀπὸ τῶν αἰγῶν) Hyperesia took the name of Ægira (Αἴγειρα), though its former appellation never fell into total disuse. The ruins are to be seen on a woody hill above the spot now called Bloubouki. To the left are the ruins of the port, choked with sand. The black posts on the two piers have occasioned the name of Mavro Lithari. To the west of Ægira was the River Crāthis, now Acratha, which descended from a mountain of the same name on the borders of Arca-It was from this stream that the Italian Crathis, which flowed between Crotona and Sybaris, derived its appellation.

4. Ægæ, on the banks of the Crathis, near its mouth, and celebrated for the worship of Neptune as early as the days of Homer. In Strabo's time it had ceased to exist, the inhabitants having been removed to Ægira, when their territory was annexed to that of Ægium. 5. Bura, to the northwest. was one of the twelve original Achæan cities, and stood at first close to the sea, but, having been destroyed with the neighboring city of Helice by a violent earthquake, the surviving inhabitants rebuilt it afterward, about forty stadia from the coast, and near the small river Buraïcus, now the Calavrita. the banks of this river was a cave consecrated to Hercules, and also the seat of an oracle, usually consulted by the throwing of dice. According to Gell, the whole country in this quarter exhibits strong marks of the violence of earthquakes. 6. Helice, near Bura, and one of the chief cities of Achaia. It was here that the general meeting of the Ionians was convened, while they were yet in possession of the country. A prodigious influx

of the sea, caused by a violent earthquake, overwhelmed and completely destroyed this place two years before the battle of Leuctra, B.C. 373. Vestiges of the submerged city were to be seen long after. This disaster took place during the night, and the city and all that lay between it and the sea, a distance of twelve stadia, were inundated in an instant. The inhabitants appear to have all perished.

7. Cerynea, to the right of and near Helice. It afforded a refuge to the inhabitants of Mycenæ when their city was taken and destroyed by the Argives. Marcus of Cerynea was the first prætor of the Achæan league. Near it flowed the River Cerynites, now, according to Leake, the Bokhusia. This river rose in Mount Cerynea, on the borders of Arcadia. 8. Ægium, to the northwest, near the coast, and now Vostizza. states of Achaia held their general assemblies here, until a law was made by Philopæmen, by which each of the federal towns became in its turn the place of meeting. 9. Rhypæ, farther along the coast, on the River Meganitas, now the Gaidouriari. It was one of the twelve Achæan cities, but was no longer inhabited in Strabo's time. It was the birth-place of Myscellus, founder of Crotona. Beyond is the River Phænix, now the Salmenico. Leaving Rhypæ, we come to Drepanum Promontorium, now Drepano, near which was port Panormus, and farther on was the more celebrated promontory of Rhium, already referred to (page 483). It was sometimes surnamed Achaicum, to distinguish it from the Molycrian or Ætolian Rhium on the opposite coast, called also Antirrhium. The intervening strait was only seven stadia.

10. Patræ, below the promontory of Rhium, now Patras, and still a place of considerable importance. It was said to have been built on the site of three towns called Aroë, Anthea, and Messatis, which had been founded by the Ionians when they were in possession of the country. On their expulsion by the Achæi, the small towns just mentioned fell into the hands of Patreus, a distinguished chieftain of that people, who, uniting them into one city, called it by his name. Its maritime situation, opposite to the coast of Ætolia and Acarnania, rendered it a very advantageous port for communicating with these countries. It sustained severe losses, however, in the Achæan war from the Romans, so much so that the few inhabitants

who remained in it determined at length to abandon the place. and to reside in the neighboring villages and boroughs. Patræ. however, was raised to its former flourishing condition after the battle of Actium by Augustus, who, in addition to its dispersed inhabitants, sent thither a large body of colonists, chosen from his veteran soldiers. In Strabo's time it was a large and populous town, with a good harbor. 11. Olenus, to the southwest, and one of the most ancient Achæan towns. It was deserted in Strabo's time. 12. $D\bar{y}me$ or Dyma, the last of the Achæan towns to the west. Its more ancient name was Palea. thinks that the appellation Dyme has reference to its western situation ($\delta \tilde{\nu} \mu$, $\delta \hat{\nu} \omega$, "to set"). The river Larissus, now Risso or Mana, formed the boundary between Achaia and Elis. 13. Tritæa, some distance to the east, and the most inland of the twelve Achæan cities. Its remains are supposed to be those at Goumenitza, and are sometimes called St. Andrea, from a church dedicated to that apostle in the immediate vicinity.

3. ELIS.

(A.) BOUNDARIES, NAME, & C.

I. Elis was bounded on the north by Achaia, on the south by Messenia, on the east by Arcadia, and on the west by the Mare Ionium. It was separated from Messenia by the River Neda, now the Bouzi, and from Achaia by the Larissus, now the Risso, although originally the promontory of Araxus was the common limit of Elis and Achaia.

II. Elis was originally divided into several districts or principalities, each occupied by a separate clan or people. Of these the *Caucones* were probably the most ancient, and also the most widely disseminated, since we find them occupying both extremities of the province, and extending even into Achaia. Next to these were the *Epei*, who are placed by Homer in the northern part of the province, and next to Achaia. The names *Elis* and *Elei* are said to have come in at a later date, and to have been derived from Eleus, a son of Endymion.

III. The more common division of Elis was into three districts, namely, $Hollow\ Elis\ (Koi\lambda\mathring{\eta}\ {}^{"}H\lambda \iota \varsigma)$ in the north, $Pis\bar{a}tis$ in the middle, and $Triph\bar{y}lia$ in the south.

IV. Elis was far the most fertile and populous district of Peloponnesus, and its inhabitants are described as fond of agriculture and rural pursuits. It was the only part of Greece in which the byssus was known to grow.

(B.) SKETCH OF ELEAN HISTORY.

I. Prior to the siege of Troy, the Epei are said to have been greatly reduced by their wars with Hercules, who conquered Augeas their king, and with the Pylians commanded by Nestor. They subsequently, however, acquired a great accession of strength by the influx of a large colony from Ætolia, under the conduct of Oxylus, and their numbers were farther increased by a considerable detachment of the Dorians and Heraclidæ.

II. Iphitus, descended from Oxylus, and a contemporary of Lycurgus, re-established the Olympic games (828 B.C.), though the Olympiads did not begin to be reckoned until 776 B.C. These games had been originally established by Hercules. The Pisatæ, having remained masters of the plain of Olympia from the first celebration of the festival, long disputed its possession with the Eleans, but they were finally conquered, and the temple and presidency of the games fell into the hands of their rivals. The preponderance obtained by the latter is chiefly attributable to the assistance they derived from Sparta, in return for the aid afforded to that power in the Messenian war.

III. From this period we may date the ascendency of Elis over all the other surrounding districts hitherto independent. It now comprised not only the country of the Epei and Caucones, which might be termed Elis Proper, but the territories of Pisa and Olympia, forming the ancient kingdom of Pelops, and the whole of Triphylia, which constituted the greater part of Nestor's dominions. The Eleans were present in all the engagements fought against the Persians, and in the Peloponnesian war zealously adhered to the Spartan confederacy, until the conclusion of the treaty after the battle of Amphipolis, when an open rupture took place between them and the Lacedæmonians, in consequence of protection and countenance afforded by the latter to the inhabitants of Lepræum, who had revolted from them. Such was the resentment of the Eleans on this occasion, that they prohibited the Lacedæmonians from taking part in the Olympic games.

IV. The Spartans retaliated by frequent incursions into the territory of Elis, the fertility of which presented an alluring prospect of booty to an invading army. They were twice defeated, however, once at Olympia, and again before the city of Elis. At length the Eleans sued for peace, and renewed their ancient alliance. In the time of Philip, they joined the Macedonian alliance, but refused to fight against the Athenians and Thebans at Chæronea; and in the Lamiac

war they united with the other confederates against Antipater.

V. During the Social war the Eleans were the firmest allies of the Ætolians in the Peloponnesus, and though they were on more than one occasion basely deserted by that people, and sustained heavy losses, they could never be induced to abandon their cause and join the Achæan league. They were included, however, in the general decree by which the whole of the Peloponnesus was annexed to the Roman empire.

(C.) PLACES IN ELIS. 1. ELIS PROPER.

1. Buprasium, the first town on the Elean side after leaving the Larissus. It is often mentioned by Homer as one of the chief

cities of the Epei. Buprasium had ceased to exist in the time of Strabo, but the name was still attached to a district on the road leading from Dyme to Elis. This seems to be what is now called the plain of Bakouma. 2. Myrsīnus, another Epean town, to the southwest, called afterward Myrtuntium. Its ruins are near the village of Kaloteichos, according to Gell. 3. Cyllēne, to the west of the preceding, and forming the haven of the city of Elis. It was the usual place of debarkation for those who sailed from Peloponnesus to Sicily and Italy. Its ruins are at Glarentza. The promontory of Hyrmīne to the west is now Cape Glarentza. The Chelonātas Promontorium, farther on, formed the extreme point of Peloponnesus to the west. It is now Cape Tornese. Below this headland is the River Penēus, now the Igliaco, to the south of which, and near its mouth, was Coryne, now Gastouni.

4. Elis, on the River Peneus, and the capital, not only of this district, but of the whole country. Strabo and Diodorus assert that it did not exist as a city until after the Persian war, when, according to Strabo, several previously detached villages were united into one town. On the other hand, it was the opinion of Pausanias, and of the natives themselves, that Elis had been founded, on the return of the Heraclidæ, by Oxylus the Ætolian. Leake thinks it probable that the town of Elis was at that time named Ephyra, and that it assumed under Oxylus, who enlarged it, the name (Elis) which had before been applied to the district. Cramer, on the contrary, places Ephyre, which he makes the same with Œnoe, on the coast, near the mouth of the Selleïs. The ruins of Elis are now termed Palæopoli. 5. Pylos, to the southeast of the preceding, and called, for distinction' sake, Pylos Elidis. There were two other places named Pylos, one in Triphylia and the other in Messenia. They all laid claim to the honor of having been the capital of Nestor. The Triphylian city, however, appears to have had the best right to be so considered. In the neighborhood of the Elean Pylos was Mount Pholoe, which Leake regards as a general name, comprising all the southwestern part of the summits of what is now called Mount Olono.

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2 PISATIS.

1. Pisa, the capital, on the Alpheus, and a very ancient city. It was the city of Œnomaus and Pelops, and originally enjoyed the presidency of the Olympic games until its rights were usurped by the Eleans and Heraclidæ. A war ensued, which ended in the overthrow and destruction of Pisa. Cramer places Pisa on the left bank of the Alpheus; Leake, however, on the right, in close proximity to Olympia. The ruin of the city occurred at so early a period as to render the determination of its site impossible at the present day. Leake's opinion, however, is probably the more correct one. 2. Olympia, a name given to the aggregate of temples, altars, and other structures on the right bank of the Alpheus, in the immediate vicinity of the spot where the Olympic games were celebrated. It was not, as many have incorrectly supposed, a city, nor did it at all resemble one. The main feature in the picture was the sacred grove Altis, planted, as legends told, by Hercules, and which he dedicated to Jupiter. Throughout the grove were scattered in rich profusion the most splendid monuments of architectural sculpture and pictorial skill. The site was already celebrated as the seat of an oracle, but it was not until the Eleans had conquered the Pisatæ, and destroyed their city, that a temple was erected to the god with the spoils of the vanquished. The statue of Jupiter was the master-piece of Phidias. The god was represented as seated on his throne, composed of gold, ebony, and ivory, studded with precious stones. itself was of ivory and gold, and of such vast proportions, that, though seated, it almost reached the ceiling. The head was crowned with olive. In the right hand it grasped an image of Victory, and in the left a sceptre on which was perched an eagle. A conspicuous feature at Olympia was the Hill of Saturn (Κρόνιον ὄρος), often alluded to by Pindar, and on the summit of which priests named Basilæ offered sacrifices to the god every year at the vernal equinox. The Olympic games were celebrated every fifth year; or rather, the exact interval at which they recurred was one of forty-nine and fifty lunar months al-The period between two celebrations was called an Olympiad. The festival lasted five days. The Olympic crown was of wild olive. The Olympiads began to be reckoned from

the year 776 B.C., in which year Corœbus was victor in the foot-race.

3. Letrini, near the mouth of the Alpheus, and a town of great antiquity. It derived its name from Letrinus, son of Pelops. It was celebrated for the worship of Diana Alphēa. 4. Salmōne, northeast of and near to the preceding. It was also a place of great antiquity, and was said to have been founded by Salmoneus.

3. TRIPHYLIA.

The name of this district is supposed to have arisen from the circumstance of the inhabitants having sprung from the blending of three different races, the Epei, Minyæ, and Eleans. Before the Social War, the whole of this district had been reduced by the Eleans; but several of its towns during that contest were taken by Philip of Macedon, who gave them up to the Achæans, and though the Eleans afterward disputed their possession, they were awarded by the Romans to the former people. The Triphylian territory was rich and fertile, and appears to have been thickly inhabited. The places most worthy of notice are the following:

- 1. Scillus or Scilluns, rendered interesting from Xenophon's having fixed his abode there during his exile. The town itself had been destroyed by the Eleans, but the territory being afterward wrested from Elis by the Lacedæmonians, was made over by the latter to Xenophon, when that celebrated Athenian was banished from Athens for having served in the army of the vounger Cyrus. Between Scillus and the Alpheus, in the direction of Olympia, was a craggy and lofty summit, named Typæum, from which the law decreed that those women should be hurled headlong who had infringed the regulations which prohibited their appearance at Olympia. This barbarous sentence, however, was never carried into execution. 2. Samia, near the mouth of the Anigrus. In Strabo's time the fortress of Samicum had replaced the ancient city. The River Anigrus formed marshes near its mouth, remarkable for the fetid odor which they exhaled, and which was popularly ascribed to the circumstance of the centaur's having washed in this stream the wounds inflicted by his envenomed shafts.
- 3. Pylos Triphyliacus, to the southeast, and regarded by Strabo, with great probability, as the city of Nestor, although Leake is in favor of the Messenian Pylos. Notwithstanding its ancient celebrity, this city is scarcely mentioned in later times. Gell places its remains at Piskini, about two miles

from the coast. 4. Lepraum, to the southeast of Pylos, founded, as was said, by the Caucones. It was a place of some strength, and possessed a rich and fertile territory. Its ruins are to be seen near the village of Strobitzi. 5. Macistus, to the northeast of the preceding, and giving name at one time to the whole surrounding district. Its site is occupied by the modern Mofkitza. 6. Pyrgos, the last town of Triphylia to the south, at the mouth of the River Neda. Herodotus says it was founded by the Minyæ. Its ruins lie on the right bank of the Neda, near the Khan of Bouzi. Apollodorus seems to assign to Elis a river once called Tigres, but afterward Harpys, from the fall of one of the Harpies into its stream. The Strophades were small islands off the coast, two in number, and which were fabled to have been so called from the circumstance of Zetes and Calaïs, the sons of Boreas, having returned thence (στρέφω, "to turn") after they had driven the Harpies thither from the table of Phineus. They are now called Strivali.

4. MESSENIA.

(A.) NAME AND BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. Messenia, called also Messene, is said by Pausanias to have derived its name from Messene, the wife of Polycaon, one of the earliest sovereigns of the country. This, however, is mere fable.

II. It was bounded on the east by *Laconia*, on the north by *Elis* and *Arcadia*, and on the west and south by the *Mare Ionium*. It was separated from Laconia by the mountain chain of Taÿgĕtus, and from Elis and Arcadia by the River Neda, and the high land which runs between the bed of the Neda and the sources of the Pamisus.

III. Messenia is described by Pausanias as the most fertile province in the Peloponnesus; and Euripides, in a passage quoted by Strabo, speaks of it as a land well watered, very fertile, with beautiful pastures for cattle, and possessing a climate neither too cold in winter nor too hot in summer. The lower part of the country in particular, south of Ithome, was celebrated in ancient times for its great fertility. Leake describes it as covered in the present day with plantations of the vine, the fig, and the mulberry, and as rich in cultivation as can well be imagined.

(B.) SKETCH OF MESSENIAN HISTORY.

I. At the time of the Trojan war Messenia appears to have been subject to Menelaus, with the exception of Pylos, and probably part of the western coast. After the death of Menelaus, the Neleid princes of Pylos are said by Strabo to have obtained the whole of the country. On the division of the Peloponnesus, after the Dorian conquest, under the Heraclidæ, Messenia fell to the share of Cresphontes, who fixed his capital in Stenyclerus.

II. In the middle of the eighth century before the Christian era, a series of disputes and skirmishes arose on the borders of Messenia and Laconia, which gave rise to a confirmed hatred between the two nations. Prompted by this feeling, the Spartans are said to have bound themselves by an oath never to return home till Messenia was subdued; and they commenced the contest by a midnight attack on Ampheia, a frontier town, which they took, and put the inhabitants to the sword. This was the commencement of what is called the first Messenian war, the date of which was about 743 B.C. After a contest of twenty years, during which the Messenian king Aristodemus distinguished himself by deeds of heroic valor, the Messenians were subdued, and reduced to the condition of Laconian helots.

III. After bearing the yoke for thirty-nine years, the Messenians took up arms against their oppressors B.C. 685, under the conduct of Aristomenes, a youth of royal blood. They were, however, again subdued, and those who remained in their native country were treated with the greatest rigor. The majority of freemen, however, withdrew from Messenia, and a considerable number, under the two sons of Aristomenes, sailed to Italy and settled at Rhegium. They afterward obtained possession of Zancle, on the opposite coast of Sicily, and called it Messana, the Doric form of Messene. This is now Messina.

IV. The Messenians again revolted in B.C. 464. This war, usually called the third Messenian war, lasted ten years; at the end of which time the Messenians, who had occupied the stronghold of Mount Ithome, surrendered on condition of being allowed to retire from the Peloponnesus. The Athenians, who were not at that time on good terms with Sparta, gladly allowed them to settle at Naupactus, which they had recently taken from the Locri Ozolæ. This place, however, the Messenians were obliged to quit, when, at the end of the Peloponnesian war, the Spartans became masters of Greece.

V. After, however, the supremacy of Sparta had been overthrown by the battle of Leuctra, Epaminondas formed the design of restoring the independence of Messenia, and accordingly sent messengers to Italy, Sicily, and all parts of Greece, to invite the long-exiled Messenians to return to their native country. Numbers obeyed the summons, and in B.C. 359 a town was built at the foot of Mount Ithome, which they called Messene. The independence of the Messenians was guaranteed by the peace concluded B.C. 361; and Messenia continued to remain an independent state till the dissolution of the Achæan confederacy. In the Messenian state, as restored by Epaminondas, the ancient national manners are said to have been retained; and the dialect remained, up to the time of Pausanias, the purest Doric that was spoken in the Peloponnesus.

(C.) PLACES IN MESSENIA.

1. Cyparissia, on the western coast, below the mouth of the River Cyparissus. It is now Arcadhia, and gives their modern names to the river just mentioned, and also to the Sinus

Cyparissius, into which it flows. The Cyparissium Promontorium, near this town, is now Cape Konello. 2. Erana, lower down on the coast, and which some have identified with the Arene of Homer. Its site corresponds to that of Ordina. Off this coast, and a little to the south, was the island of Prote, now Proti or Prodano, where the Athenian fleet anchored previous to the naval fight in the harbor of Pylos. 3. Pylos Messeniacus, to the south, and also on the coast. It was situate at the foot of Mount Ægaleus, now Mount Geranio, or Agio Elia, and was one of the cities named Pylos, which laid claim to the honor of having been the capital of Nestor. Strabo is in favor of the Triphylian Pylos in Elis, but Leake of the Messenian. Pylos answers to the modern Navarino, and must not be confounded with Coryphasium, the fortress erected by the Athenians in the Peloponnesian war at one of the entrances into the harbor, and which corresponds now to Old Navarino. The harbor of Pylos was a very spacious one, and was protected from the swell of the sea by the island of Sphacteria, having an entrance on either side of it. It is now the best harbor in the Peloponnesus, and is commonly called the Bay of Navarino. This bay has attained celebrity in modern times by the defeat of the Turco-Egyptian fleet by the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia. The island of Sphacteria also was rendered memorable by the defeat and capture of a Lacedæmonian detachment in the seventh year of the Peloponnesian war. was likewise called Sphagia, which name it still retains.

4. Methone, lower down on the coast. Pausanias calls it Mothone, and makes it to have derived its name from the rock Mothon, which formed the breakwater of its harbor. It was identified by some with the Pedasus of Homer, one of the seven towns offered by Agamemnon to Achilles. The Emperor Trajan especially favored this town, and bestowed several privileges on its inhabitants. Its site at the present day is called Palaio Mothone, and is a little to the east of the modern Modon. The Enussæ Insulæ, in its vicinity, are now Sapienza and Cabrera. After doubling the Acritas Promontorium, now Cape Gallo, we enter the great Messenian Gulf, now the Gulf of Coron, and reach, 5. Colonides, an Attic colony, nearly corresponding to the modern Coron. 6. Æpēa, to the north, on the coast, and which changed its name to Corone, after the restoration of the

Messenians. It was in attempting to take this town, during the war occasioned by the secession of Messene from the Achæan league, that Philopæmen was made prisoner. The Messenian Gulf was sometimes called Coronæus Sinus. Corone answers to the modern Petalidi, about fifteen miles to the north of Coron. Passing the River Pamisus, famed for the purity of its waters, and now the Pirnatza, we come to, 7. Abiæ, opposite to Corone, and supposed to be the Ira of Homer, though not to be confounded with Ira on the borders of Arcadia. It possessed a celebrated temple of Hercules, and another of Æsculapius. 8. Cardamyle, farther south, now Scardamoula. Augustus adjudged it to belong to Laconia. 9. Leuctrum, the last town of Messenia on this coast, and from its frontier situation a source of dispute between the Messenians and Laconians. The ancient site is still called Leutro.

Advancing into the interior of Messenia, we come to, 1. Gerēnia, to the northeast of Cardamyle, and a very ancient city, where, according to some, Nestor was educated, and whence he derived the epithet of Gerenian. Other accounts, however, identify Gerenia with the Enope of Homer. 2. Limnæ, some distance to the north, sacred to Diana, and having a temple where a festival was celebrated by both the Messenians and 3. Calamæ, to the west, and near the modern Calamata. 4. Thuria, to the north, annexed by Augustus to Laconia, for having espoused the cause of Antony. 5. Stenyclērus, to the north, said to have been the capital of the country in the reign of Cresphontes. The region around was called the Stenyclerian plain, and was celebrated in the songs of the natives as the scene of the achievements of Aristomenes. 6. Messēnē, to the west, at the foot of Mount Ithome, founded, as we have already remarked, by Epaminondas, after the overthrow of the Spartan power. Pausanias says that the walls of the city were the strongest he had ever seen. The citadel was on Mount Ithôme, now Mount Vourkano, and celebrated for the long and obstinate defence which the Messenians there made against the Spartans in their last revolt. On the summit was the temple of Jupiter Ithomatas, to whom the mountain was dedicated. This citadel and the Acrocorinthus were deemed the two strongest places in Greece. The ruins of Messene are still visible at the village of Mavrommati. The River Balyra,

flowing near the town, was said to have derived its name from the lyre of Thamyris, which the bard threw into the stream after losing his sight. It is now the *Mavro Zoumena*, and is the largest of the tributaries of the Pamisus.

Aulon was that district of Messenia which bordered on Triphylia and part of Arcadia, being separated from them by the Neda. It contained the city of Aulon, near the mouth of the Neda. Higher up the river stood Ira, a mountain fortress, celebrated in the history of the Messenian wars as the last stronghold whither Aristomenes retreated, and which he so long defended against the enemies of his country.

5. LACONIA.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. The Greek name of this country was Laconice (Λακωνική, scil. $\gamma\tilde{\eta}$). The Roman writers, however, call it Laconia.

II. Laconia was bounded on the north by Arcadia and Argolis, on the west by Messenia, on the east and south by the Mare Ægæum.

III. Laconia is a long, narrow valley, running from north to south, and lying between two mountain masses, which stretch from Arcadia to the southern extremities of the Peloponnesus. The western range, which terminated in the Promontory of Tanarus, now Cape Matapan, was called Taygētus, and the eastern, terminating in the Promontory of Malea, now Cape S. Angelo, was known by the names of Parnon, Thornax, and Zarex. The whole drainage of this valley is collected in the River Eurōtas, now the Basilipotamo, which flows from the high lands of Arcadia, and is joined by the Œnus, a little above Sparta.

IV. From its source to its junction with the Œnus, the Eurotas flows through a very deep and narrow valley, which near Sparta is so much contracted as to leave room for little more than the channel of the river. After it leaves Sparta, the hills recede farther from the river; but near Œnoe they again approach it for a short distance, and afterward retire to the west and east, toward the Capes of Tænarus and Malea respectively, leaving between them a plain of considerable breadth, through which the Eurotas flows to the sea.

V. The snow remains on the highest points of Taygetus, in

the neighborhood of Amyclæ, to the month of June. The streams on the eastern slope of this mountain range are abundant. Leake describes the soil of Laconia as in general a poor mixture of white clay and stones, difficult to plough, and better suited to olives than corn. This description is in conformity to that of Euripides, who says that it possessed much arable land, but difficult to work.

VI. Strabo informs us that there were some valuable stone quarries near Tænarus, and in the mountains of Taÿgetus; and Pausanias also speaks of the shell-fish on the coast, which produced a dye inferior only to the Tyrian. Laconia was subject, in common with the southern countries of Greece, to earthquakes, the most remarkable of which occurred B.C. 462, and destroyed the whole of the city of Sparta, with the exception of five houses.

Obs. Laconia is well described by Euripides as difficult of access to an enemy. On the west the range of Taygetus formed almost an insuperable barrier to any invading force; and on the north there were only two natural passes by which the country could be entered, one by the valley of the upper Eurotas, as the course of that river above Sparta may be termed, and the other by the valley of the Enus. Both of these natural openings led to Sparta, which shows how admirably the capital was situated for purposes of defence. The want of good harbors on the coast also protected it from invasion by sea; and the possession of the island of Cythēra, at the Sinus Laconicus, was therefore always considered by the Lacedæmonians as a point of great importance.

(B.) SKETCH OF LACONIAN HISTORY.

I. According to the most ancient traditions of Laconia, the Leleges were the earliest inhabitants of the country. Lelex, the first king, was succeeded by his son Mules, who left the kingdom to his son Eurotas. This last monarch, dying without issue, bequeathed the kingdom to Lacedæmon, the son of Jupiter and Taÿgeta, who married Sparta, the daughter of Eurotas. The sovereignty is said to have remained in this family till shortly before the Trojan war, when the descendants of Pelops, Menelaus and Agamemnon, obtained possession of the country by marrying, the former Helen, the latter Clytemnestra, daughters of Tyndareus, the last monarch of the ancient dynasty. At the time of the Trojan war we find the country in the possession of the Achæans, who undoubtedly settled in Laconia at a very early period, and probably conquered the Leleges. Menelaus was succeeded by Orestes, who had married his daughter Hermione, and Orestes by Tisamenus, during whose reign the Peloponnesus was invaded by the Dorians.

II. The Heraclidæ established a double dynasty of two kings at Sparta; for as neither the mother nor the Delphic oracle could decide which of the twin sons of Aristodemus, namely, Eurysthenes and Procles, was first born, the country of Laconia was assigned to them in common; and it was determined that the descendants of both should succeed them. The previous inhabitants, however, had little cause to rejoice in the arrival of these foreigners, whose fierce

disputes under seven rulers of both houses distracted the country with civil feuds, while it was at the same time involved in constant wars with its neighbors. The royal authority was continually becoming feebler, and the popular power was increased by these divisions, until Lycurgus came upon the scene. This distinguished man, the only individual in whom both parties confided, established a new constitution for Sparta about 880 B.C.

III. Lacedæmon now acquired new vigor, which was manifested in her wars with her neighbors, particularly with the Messenians, whose country was subjugated. The battle of Thermopylæ gave Sparta so much distinction among the Greeks, that even Athens consented to yield the command of the confederate forces by land and sea to the Spartans. Pausanias gained, in consequence, the celebrated victory of Platææ, and, on the same day, the Grecian army and fleet, under the command of the Spartan king Leotychides, and the Athenian general Xanthippus, defeated the Persians at Mycale.

IV. With the rise of the political importance of Sparta, the social organization of the nation was developed. The power of the kings was gradually limited, while that of the ephori was increased. After the Persians had been victoriously repelled, the Grecian states, having now acquired warlike habits, carried on hostilities against each other; jealousy arose between Sparta and Athens, and the Peloponnesian war ensued, B.C. 431. This ended in the ascendency of Sparta, and the entire humiliation of her rival. The Spartans next became involved in a war with Persia, and the Persian throne was shaken by the victories of Agesilaus; but Athens, Thebes, Corinth, and some of the Peloponnesian states, were instigated by Persian gold to declare war against Sparta, and Agesilaus was recalled. This commander defeated the Thebans at Coronea; but, on the other hand, Conon, the Athenian commander, gained a victory over the Spartan fleet at Cnidus, and took fifty galleys. To this contest succeeded, after some interval, the celebrated Theban war, in which Epaminondas broke the power of Sparta, and this state thenceforth ceased to act a prominent part in Greece.

V. The Macedonian power now gained the ascendency, and Sparta, along with the other states, was compelled to succumb. Luxury and licentiousness after this began to make gradual inroads, and after Cleomenes had in vain attempted to stem the torrent, the state fell under the power of the tyrants Machanidas and Nabis. Its final downfall, however, was effected by the Achæans and Romans, and, on being compelled to join the Achæan league, it passed eventually with that confederacy under the dominion of the Romans.

VI. Under the Roman rule, the inhabitants of Laconia enjoyed a greater degree of freedom than was allowed to the other provinces of Greece, being, says Strabo, regarded rather as allies than as subjects. A considerable part of the nation, consisting of several maritime towns, was dignified with the title of Eleuthero-Lacones, or Free Laconians, conferred upon it by Augustus, together with other privileges, for the zeal which its inhabitants had early testified in favor of the Romans.

VII. Laconia is said to have once contained one hundred towns. When the Dorians conquered it, they selected Sparta for the place of their own residence, and permitted the rest of the province to be occupied by a mixed population composed of Dorians and other strangers, and of the Achæans the previous inhabitants. The Dorians who held Sparta received from their city the name of Spartans; the Laconians who inhabited the surrounding towns were termed περίοικοι. The name of Lacedæmonians was common to both. The περίοικοι were treated generally with great oppression, and held their towns as subjects

or vassals of the Spartans. They formed, however, a part of the military force, and were sometimes even placed in offices of trust. The slaves were called *Helots*. These Helots were originally composed of the inhabitants of Laconian towns reduced to slavery; but their name was afterward communicated to those Messenians who remained in the country after the second Messenian war.

(C.) PLACES IN LACONIA.

After leaving the mouth of the Pamisus, which separated Laconia from Messenia, we come to, 1. Pephnus, now Pekno, according to Cramer. Leake places it at the harbor of Platza. Opposite to it was a little island, also called Pephnus, in which the Dioscuri were said to have been born. 2. Thalama, now, according to Gell, Calamo. 3. Œtylus, lower down, now Vitulo. It contained a temple of Serāpis. 4. Messa, some distance below, and mentioned by Homer. Cramer makes it answer to the modern Maino, but Leake to the harbor of Mezapo. 5. Tanărum, to the east of the Thyrides Promontorium, or Cape Grosso. It was called Canepolis at a later period, under the Roman sway, and was the chief place of the Eleuthero-Laconic confederation. The ruins are near Cyparisso. Doubling the promontory of Tænarus, now Cape Matapan, and entering the Sinus Laconicus, sometimes called Gytheātes Sinus, now the Gulf of Colokythia, we meet with no place of importance until we come to, 6. Gythium, at the head of the gulf, frequently mentioned by ancient writers as the port of Sparta, from which it was distant two hundred and forty stadia. According to Pliny, it was the nearest point to embark from for the island of Crete. The site is now called Palæopoli, but no habitation is left upon it. The small island of Cranaë lay off this place, alluded to by Homer, according to some, in his account of the abduction of Helen. It is now Marathonnisi. Some, however, lay the scene of this adventure in the island of Helena or Macris, off the coast of Attica.

7. Helos, to the east, on the opposite side of the gulf, and not far from the mouth of the Eurotas. The inhabitants of this town, having revolted against the Dorians and Heraclidæ, were reduced to slavery, and called Helots, which name was afterward extended to the various people who were held in bondage by the Spartans. Polybius says that the district of Helos was the most extensive and fertile part of Laconia. But the coast was marshy, from which circumstance it probably derived its name (ξλος, "a marsh"). The site is uncertain, probably near

Priniko. 8. Cyparissia, according to Strabo, situate on a peninsula. It lay to the south of Helos, and its site is now occupied by the modern fortress of Rupino or Rampano, sometimes called Castel Kyparissi. Doubling the promontory of Onugnathus, we enter the Sinus Bæāticus, now the Gulf of Vathika, off which, to the southwest, lay the island of Cythera, now Cerigo, celebrated as having received Venus on her birth from the sea. According to Eustathius, it was once called Porphyris, from the quantity of purple-yielding shell-fish found on its shores. This island was of great importance to Sparta, since its harbors sheltered the Spartan fleets, and afforded protection to merchant vessels against the attacks of pirates. It was taken by the Athenians in the Peloponnesian war, and the Spartans were in consequence exposed to much annoyance from the ravaging of the coast of Laconia. The principal town was also called Cythera; the principal harbor was called Scandea, and is mentioned by Homer.

Returning to the coast of Laconia, we come to, 9. Baa, on the Sinus Beaticus, and giving name to it. The site is now called Vathika. Doubling the Promontory of Malea, now Cape St. Angelo or Malio, we pass to, 10. Epidelium, now, according to Cramer, S. Angelo. Its ruins are near the modern Cape Kamili. 11. Epidaurus Limēra, to the north, said to have been founded by the Argives, to whom, at one time, this whole coast, as far as the Malean promontory, belonged. This place contained a celebrated temple of Æsculapius. Its site is now called Palæa Monembasia. The modern Monembasia, which lies a little to the south, appears to correspond to the ancient Minoa.

12. Sparta, sometimes called Lacedæmon, was the capital of Laconia, and the chief city of the Peloponnesus. It was situate on the right or western bank of the Eurotas, about twenty miles from the sea. Sparta was built in a plain of some extent, and was bounded on the east by the Eurotas, and on the south by a smaller stream, called the Knakion, now Trypiotiko. Polybius describes it as of a circular form, and, though situate in a plain, containing within it several rising grounds and hills. Homer calls it the "hollow Lacedæmon," from the mountain ranges by which the plain is surrounded. Sparta was not regularly fortified till the time of the Roman interference in Greece,

though fortifications had been hastily thrown up against the attacks of Demetrius Poliorcetes (B.C. 280) and Pyrrhus (B.C. 272). It was at last completely surrounded with walls by order of Appius, the Roman legate. The ruins are about two miles distant from the modern *Mistra*. The villages of *Magūla* and *Psykhikó* occupy a part of the immediate site. Sparta was much subject to earthquakes, and, on one of these occasions, prior to the Peloponnesian war, only five houses were left standing.

13. Therapne, on the left bank of the Eurotas, and southeast of Sparta. Here were to be seen the temple of Menelaus and his tomb, as well as that of Helen. The ruins are near the village of Amphisu. 14. Amyclæ, south of Sparta, and to the west of the Eurotas. It was one of the most ancient cities of Laconia, having been founded long before the invasion of the Dorians. It was celebrated for its temple of the Amyclean Apollo. Hyacinthus, the favorite of Apollo, was fabled to have been buried here. It was also celebrated as the birth-place of Castor and Pollux, who, according to another legend, were born on the island of Pephnus. The country around was beautifully wooded, and is so still at the present day. Leake places the site of Amyclæ at Aia Kyriaki. 15. Selläsia, some distance to the north of Sparta, near the confluence of the Œnus and Gongylus, in a valley confined between two mountains, named Euas and Olympus. It commanded the only road by which an army could enter Laconia from the north, and was therefore a position of great importance for the defence of the capital. According to Boblaye and Ross, its site is near the Khan of Krevata. Leake, however, places it more to the south.

6. ARGOLIS.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, &c.

I. Argölis derived its name from the Pelasgic term Argos, which properly meant "a plain," but which served also to indicate as well the district of country afterward called Argolis, as the city situate therein. Argos, too, as has already been remarked, is sometimes put for the whole Peloponnesus.

II. Argolis was of a peninsular shape for the most part, and was bounded on the north by *Corinthia* and *Sicyonia*, on the west by Arcadia, on the south by *Laconia* and the *Sinus Ar*-

golicus, now the Gulf of Napoli, and on the east by the Sinus Saronicus, now Gulf of Engia. Its greatest length, measured in a straight line along its western frontier, was nearly thirty-eight miles, and the peninsular part of it varied from twenty-five to eleven miles in breadth.

III. Argolis is traversed by a ridge of mountains, which run nearly in a continued line through the peninsula, from Mount Cyllene in Arcadia, on its northwestern frontier, in an eastward direction to the promontory of Scyllæum. These mountains are intersected by deep valleys, through which flow rivulets, generally dry during summer. The ancient name of part of this ridge was Arachnæus, which was crossed by the road from Argos to Epidaurus. The valleys are very numerous, and of greatest breadth on the southern side of the ridge, but none of them are of any great extent. That in which Argos and Mycenæ were situate is the largest, and through it flowed the Inachus. The coast is of an irregular shape, with numerous indentations, and is generally low. The only good harbor was Nauplia, now Napoli di Romania, at the head of the Sinus Saronicus.

(B.) SKETCH OF ARGIVE HISTORY.

I. The earliest inhabitants of Argolis were Pelasgi. The term Argos itself was one of Pelasgic origin, and we find it applied to cities in Thessaly and other quarters of Greece, once in the occupation of this people. On the arrival of Danaus, who is said to have come from Egypt, the inhabitants are reported to have changed their ancient appellation of Pelasgi to that of Danai. At that time the whole of what was afterward called Argolis acknowledged the authority of one sovereign; but after the lapse of two generations, a division took place, by which Argos and its territory were allotted to Acrisius, the lineal descendant of Danaus, while Tiryns and the maritime country became the inheritance of his brother Prætus. A third kingdom was subsequently established by Perseus, son of the former, who founded Mycenæ. But these were all finally reunited in the person of Atreus, son of Pelops, who acquired, in right of the houses of Pelops and Perseus, which he represented, possession of nearly the whole of the Peloponnesus, which ample territory came in course of succession to Agamemnon.

II. After the death of Agamemnon, the crown descended to Orestes, and subsequently to his son Tisamenus, who was forced to evacuate the throne by the invasion of the Dorians and Heraclidæ. Temenus, the lineal descendant of Hercules, now became the founder of a new dynasty; but the Argives, having acquired a taste for liberty, curtailed so much the power of their sovereigns as to leave them but the name and semblance of kings. At length, having deposed Meltas, the last of the Temenid dynasty, they changed the constitution into a republican form of government.

. III. In the more certain historical ages, Argos becomes first known to us

when engaged in war with the Spartans respecting the territory of Thyrea. This war was contemporaneous with the capture of Sardes by Cyrus. Before this epoch the possessions of Argos had extended along the coast to Cape Malea, and included Cythera and other islands. At a later period, B.C. 493, there was another contest between Argos and Sparta, in which Argos was unsuccessful, and so many of the citizens fell in battle, that the slaves, or more probably the Periœci, found no difficulty in seizing the government, and are said to have retained it till the sons of their masters had grown up, when they were again expelled from the city. It was probably on this account that the Argives took no part in the Persian war, B.C. 480, though many believed them to have been bribed by Xerxes.

IV. A few years afterward we find them at war with the inhabitants of Mycenæ, who had refused to acknowledge the supremacy of Argos, and had been supported for many years in their independence by the Spartans. Mycenæ fell, and never arose again from its ruins.

V. Though Argos remained neutral during the earlier part of the Peloponnesian war, her feelings were at all times opposed to the Spartans, and she at last took an active part with the Athenians. The defeat, however, of the Argives at Mantinea, B.C. 418, dissolved the confederacy of which she was the head, and Argos was compelled to accept an aristocratic constitution. She subsequently shook off the yoke, and we find her assisting the Thebans at the battle of Mantinea, B.C. 362. But her history becomes gradually less important; nor is there any fact worthy of being noticed till the unsuccessful attempt made by Pyrrhus, B.C. 272, to take the city. It joined the Achæan league, and continued to form a part of this confederacy until its final dissolution by the Romans.

(C.) PLACES IN ARGOLIS.

Advancing from the Laconian frontier, we come to the small territory of *Cynuria*, the possession of which led to frequent disputes between the Spartans and Argives. Its principal town was *Thyrea*, near which the celebrated battle was fought between three hundred Spartans and an equal number of Argives. The Argives being defeated in a general action not long after, Thyrea was held by the Spartans, who established here the Ægīnētæ, upon the expulsion of that people from their island by the Athenians. Thyrea was afterward ceded by treaty to the Argives. Its site was probably not far from the modern town of *Astro*. The *Thyreātes Sinus* is now the Bay of *Astro*.

Leaving Cynuria, and moving upward along the coast, we come to, 1. Lerna, a small lake or marsh, formed by several sources which discharged themselves into its basin. It was celebrated as the scene of the contest between Hercules and the Hydra. The most famous of the streams which formed this lake was the fountain Amymone. The Lernean Lake is now a small marshy pool, overgrown with reeds. Bending our course around the head of the bay, we come next to, 2. Nauplia,

the port of Argos, now Napoli di Romania. Both in ancient and modern times this has been an important harbor, and, indeed, the only good one in Argolis. 3. Argos, to the northwest, inland, and still preserving its name. It was generally regarded as the oldest city of Greece. The walls of this city were constructed of massive blocks of stone, or, in other words, were of Cyclopean structure. It was also protected by two citadels, situated on towering rocks, and surrounded by fortifications equally strong. The principal one was named Larissa. Argos stood on the banks of the Inachus. In Strabo's time it was inferior only to Sparta in extent and population. An account of the River Inachus has already been given (p. 479).

4. Mycenæ, to the northeast of Argos, said to have been founded by Perseus after the death of his grandfather Acrisius. It was the capital of the Pelopidæ, and under Agamemnon attained to its highest degree of opulence and power. It was attacked and captured by the people of Argos, B.C. 468, who levelled it with the ground, and enslaved the inhabitants. According to Diodorus Siculus, the war arose from a dispute relative to the Temple of Juno, which was common to the two republics. Modern travellers have given a full and interesting account of the ruins of this place, among which the most remarkable is a subterranean chamber, called by Pausanias the Treasury of Atreus. The Gate of the Lions still remains in the same state in which it was when seen by Pausanias, and also a magnificent wall of Cyclopean masonry. The ruins are close to the village of Krabata. 5. Tiryns or Tirynthus, to the southeast of Argos, and celebrated for its massive walls. It was said to have been founded by King Prætus, brother of Acrisius, who, as Strabo reports, employed for the construction of his citadel workmen from Lycia, or, in other words, Cyclopean builders. Tiryns is connected with the legend of Hercules. Alcmena, his mother, was daughter of Electryon, a descendant of Prœtus. and the crown would have devolved on her husband Amphitryon had he not been expelled by Sthenelus, king of Argos. cules, however, afterward regained possession of his inheritance, whence he derived the surname of Tirynthius. This city was destroyed by the Argives, and the greater part of its inhabitants removed to Argos. The ruins are still very imposing. The general form of the citadel is said to be that of a ship or boat.

6. Hermione, on the southeastern coast, and some distance to the west of the Scyllæum Promontorium. According to Herodotus, it was founded by the Dryopes. This place was one of considerable importance, and contained many temples, one of which, that of Ceres, was famed for its affording an inviolable refuge to suppliants. Not far from this was a cave supposed to communicate with the infernal regions. It was probably owing to this speedy descent to Orcus that the Hermionians, as Strabo informs us, omitted to put a piece of money into the mouths of their dead. Lasus, an early poet of some note, said to have been the instructor of Pindar, was a native of this place. The ruins are near Castri, opposite to the island of Hydra, the ancient Hydrea. The bay in front was called the Sinus Hermionicus, now Gulf of Castri.

This part of the Argolic coast was lined with several small islands, of which we may name the following: 1. Aperopia, now, according to Cramer, Hydron; but, according to Boblaye and Leake, Dhoko. 2. Hydrea, now the celebrated commercial island Hydra. 3. Tiparenus, now Spezzia, and also celebrated for its commerce.

Returning to the main land, we come to, 7. Træzēne, northeast of Hermione, and said to have been a very ancient city. It derived its name from Træzen, son of Pelops, but had existed long before this period under the several appellations of Orea, Althepia, and Posidonia. Træzene was the native place of Theseus, and here he long resided. In the Persian war, the Træzenians received most of the Athenian families who were forced to abandon their city. From the description which Pausanias has given of its buildings, we learn that it was still a flourishing town in the second century of the Christian era. ruins are near the modern village of Damala. The harbor of Træzene was called Pogon, from its shape, being formed by a curved strip of land which resembled "a beard." Off this harbor was the island of Calauria. Neptune had a temple here, which was regarded as an inviolable asylum. In this sanctuary Demosthenes took refuge, and here he ended his existence. Calauria is now called Poro. 8. Methone or Methana, to the north of Træzene, and now Methana or Mitone. It was situate on the neck of a peninsula. In its vicinity were some hot springs, produced by a volcano in the reign of Antigonus Gonatas. 9. Epidaurus, higher up on the coast. Its earlier name was Epicarus, its founders having been Carians, as Aristotle reported, who were afterward joined by an Ionian colony from Attica. Epidaurus was celebrated for its vines, and also for its breed of horses; but its greatest celebrity arose from its temple of Æsculapius, which was the resort of invalids of all kinds. It was erected on the spot where Æsculapius himself was said to have been born and brought up. Leake makes the site of Epidaurus correspond to that of Pidavro, but Boblaye to that of Nea Epidavros.

10. Lessa, to the west of the preceding, and near Mons Arachnæus, which mountain is mentioned by Æschylus as the last station of the telegraphic fire by which the news of the capture of Troy was transmitted to Mycenæ. Arachnæus is now Sophico. 11. Nemĕa, some distance to the northwest, and celebrated as the spot where the Nemean games were held. In its vicinity was the haunt of the lion slain by Hercules. It was not a city, but, like Olympia, a sacred spot, with temples and other buildings. 12. Cleōnæ, to the northeast, situate on a rock, and well fortified. The ruins are near Kurtesi. 13. Phlius, to the southwest, and properly a small independent republic, though in early times dependent on Mycenæ. Its ruins are near Agios Giorgios.

ÆGINA.

I. It only remains now to give some account of the island of Ægina, lying as it does in the Sinus Saronicus, and off the coast of Argolis. From its position, therefore, it naturally belongs to the latter country, and Homer, moreover, has ranged its warriors under the standard of Diomede, sovereign of Argos.

II. In fabulous times this island is said to have borne the name of Ænone, which it afterward exchanged for that of Ægina, daughter of Asopus, and mother of Æacus, and the long line of heroes descended from him. The renown of the Æacidæ, indeed, reflected no small glory on the country which had given them birth, and formed one of the chief boasts of its inhabitants. Ægina subsequently received colonies from Crete, Argos, and Epidaurus. The Cretan establishment may be referred to the time of Minos; that of Argos to the period in which Phidon was tyrant of that city; while the Epidaurians who crossed over into the island were a detachment of those Dorians who had left Argos under Deiphontes, to settle at Epidaurus.

III. Ægina soon became distinguished by the industry and enterprise of its inhabitants, and its extensive commerce and its powerful navy enabled it to contend successfully even with the power of Athens. As early as B.C. 563, in the reign of Amasis, before any town of European Greece except Corinth had acquired great commercial wealth, we find that Ægina had a factory established in lower Egypt for its merchants. The island was then one of the great cen-

tres of the Mediterranean commerce. Ægina had also a very early silver coinage, and many of its coins still exist. According to the common account, the first silver money was coined here by Phidon of Argos, who at that time held the island under his sway.

IV. When Xerxes invaded Greece, the people of Ægina took a brilliant part in the great sea fight of Salamis. They sent thirty ships besides those which guarded their own island, and were allowed to have acquitted themselves better than any other of the Greeks; which tended to wipe off the disgraceful imputation of previous treachery to the common cause, of which they were apparently not altogether guiltless. This event may be fixed as the latest period of their great prosperity, which had probably lasted for more than a century. After the Persian wars the old jealousies of Athens and Ægina again broke out, and finally resulted in the capture of the island by the former, and the expulsion of the inhabitants, B.C. 430. A remnant of them were restored by Lysander at the close of the Peloponnesian war, B.C. 404; but Ægina never afterward recovered its importance.

V. The capital of the island was likewise called *Ægina*, and was situate in the northwestern part of it. Its vestiges cover at the present day an extensive plain. The modern name of the island is *E'gina* or *Enghia*. Ægina is celebrated for its remains of antiquity, particularly those of the great temple of Jupiter Panhellenius.

7. ARCADIA.

(A.) NAME, BOUNDARIES, & C.

I. Arcādia was fabled to have derived its name from Arcas, the son of Jupiter and Callisto, who ruled at one time over the country, according to an early legend, and was instructed in agriculture by Triptolemus.

II. Arcadia was bounded on the north by *Achaia*, on the west by *Elis*, on the south by *Messenia* and *Laconia*, and on the east by *Argolis*.

III. It was a mountainous region, and may be regarded as the Switzerland of Greece, though its mountains are of much less elevation. The centre of the Peloponnesus, indeed, may be regarded as a high table land, traversed by numerous mountain ridges, and contains the sources of some of the most considerable rivers that flow into the seas around the peninsula.

IV. The most fertile part was toward the south, where the country sloped off, and contained many fruitful vales and numerous streams. The scenery in this quarter is still very beautiful.

(B.) CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.

I. As Arcadia is a mountainous country, and abounds in forests and grass lands, the character of its inhabitants and their mode of life were, to a great extent, determined by these physical circumstances. The tending of cattle, therefore, and hunting, were their chief occupations.

II. To their pastoral mode of life may also be ascribed the attachment of the Arcadians for music; and hence, also, the worship of Pan, as the tutelary deity of Arcadia. It was their diligent cultivation of music which, according to Polybius, himself an Arcadian, changed his countrymen from the fierce and almost savage character which they had in their early state, to mildness and innocent simplicity.

III. The Arcadians, like the people of Switzerland at the present day, possessed a strong love of freedom, and likewise a love of money; for, wherever there was money, you might see Arcadian mercenary troops.

(C.) SKETCH OF ARCADIAN HISTORY.

I. According to their own account, the Arcadians had occupied the central parts of the Peloponnesus from time immemorial. According to Aristotle, however, they expelled a prior race from the country. They appear, in fact, to have been a branch of the great Pelasgic nation; and hence the tradition, that a king, named Pelasgus, taught them to build huts, and clothe themselves with the skins of animals.

II. In the second Messenian war, B.C. 685-668, we find the Arcadians under the rule of a monarch named Aristocrates, whom they stoned to death on account of his treacherous behavior to the Messenians; and the country was thereupon divided into a number of small republics. Herodotus says that they took part with the other Greeks against Xerxes, and that they sent to Thermopylæ a body of two thousand one hundred and twenty men.

III. Their history, however, for a long time subsequent to this, clearly shows that they did not possess the feelings of a united people. They were, as already remarked, mere soldiers of fortune, ready to draw their swords in behalf of any one willing to pay them. In the celebrated Sicilian expedition they were found in the ranks of both armies; nor do they appear to have acted as a nation till they had founded, under the advice of Epaminondas, the city of Megalopolis, B.C. 371, which became the metropolis of the country.

IV. From this time the Arcadians appear as a confederate state, with a general council to manage the affairs of the nation. It is said to have consisted of ten thousand members, called of $\mu\nu\rho\iota\sigma\iota$; and if it were not frequently mentioned by ancient writers under this appellation, we should be inclined to imagine that there must be some mistake. What makes it still more inexplicable is, that it possessed the executive and judicial powers, but not the legislative, which resided in the whole assembled people.

V. On the death of Alexander we find the country a prey to a number of petty tyrants, and the part they took in the Achæan league did not relieve them from their difficulties, or enable them to re-establish peace and security. The Romans at last made themselves masters of their country, and included it with the rest of the Peloponnesus in the province of Achaia.

(D.) PLACES IN ARCADIA.

1. Mantinea, at the foot of Mount Artemisius, on the borders of Argolis, and nearly due west from Argos. It was one of the oldest and most celebrated cities of Arcadia, and was said to have been founded by Mantineus, son of Lycon. Mantinea was situate on the banks of the little river Ophis, and was at first composed of four or five hamlets, which were afterward

collected into one city; and, previous to the founding of Megalopolis, was the largest and most populous place in Arcadia. The great but indecisive battle was fought in its plain between the Bœotians and Spartans, in which Epaminondas was slain. The ruins are now called Palæopoli. 2. Orchoměnus, to the northwest, also a very ancient city, and not to be confounded with the place of the same name in Bœotia. The adjacent plain was, in a great measure, occupied by a small lake formed by the rain water which descended from the neighboring hills. The site of this city is partly occupied by the modern village of Kalpaki. 3. Stymphālus, to the northeast, founded by Stymphalus, son of Arcas, and called by Pindar, from its great antiquity, the mother of Arcadia. Near the town was a lake of the same name, once the fabled haunt of the birds called Stymphalides, which were destroyed by Hercules. The town stood on the northern shore of the lake. The ruins are near the modern Kionia, according to Leake.

- 4. Pheneus, to the northwest. Hercules is said to have dwelt here after his departure from Tiryns. Homer mentions it among the principal Arcadian cities. It was surrounded by extensive marshes, formed principally by the River Aroanius. These are said to have once inundated the whole country, and to have destroyed the ancient town. Its ruins are near the village of *Phonia*. Between Pheneus and Stymphalus rose Mount Cyllene, the loftiest and most celebrated mountain of Arcadia, and on which, according to the poets, Mercury was born. A temple was dedicated to him on its summit. The modern name is Zyria. 5. Nonacris, to the northwest, on the confines of Achaia. It was surrounded by lofty mountains and perpendicular rocks, over which a torrent called Styx precipitated itself to join the River Crathis. The waters were said to be poisonous, and to possess the property of corroding metals and other hard substances. The fall of the Styx is now called Mauronero, or "the Black Water."
- 6. Clitor, nearly due west from Pheneus, and a town of some celebrity. There was a fountain here, which made those who tasted its waters averse to wine. The town was situate on the River Clitor, a tributary of the Aroanius. The ruins, now called Palæopoli, are near the modern Mazi. 7. Cynætha, to the northwest, and on the northern declivity of Mount Aroanius.

The inhabitants were depraved and barbarous, owing, it is said, to their neglect of music, to which the other Arcadians paid so much attention. Near the town was a fountain called Alyssus, from its curing hydrophobia. Cynætha probably stood near the site of the modern Calavrita. 8. Psophis, some distance to the southwest, on the River Erymanthus, and at the foot of the mountain of the same name. Mount Erymanthus is celebrated in fable as the haunt of the wild boar destroyed by Her-The River Erymanthus is now the Dogana. The ruins of Psophis are near the Khan of Tripotamo. 9. Heræa, some distance to the southwest, between the Ladon and Alpheus, and on the slope of a hill rising gently above the right bank of the latter stream. It was near the confines of Elis, which country frequently disputed its possession with Arcadia. Its site is now partly occupied by the village of Aiani. 10. Aliphēra, to the southwest, a place of considerable strength, and occupied by the Eleans after the inhabitants had retired to Megalopolis. Its site corresponds to the modern Nerovitza.

11. Megălopolis, to the southeast, and near the borders of Messenia and Laconia. It was the most recent of all the Arcadian towns, and also the most extensive, and was situate in a wide and fertile plain watered by the Helisson, which nearly divided the town into two equal parts. It was founded by the advice of Epaminondas, as a check upon the Spartans, with whom the Megalopolitans often came subsequently into collision. It was at last surprised by them and destroyed. Achæans restored it after the battle of Sellasia, but it never rose to its former flourishing condition. Megalopolis was the birth-place of Philopæmen and Polybius. Its site is in part occupied by the modern Sinano. 12. Lycosura, to the northwest, and which Pausanias makes to have been the oldest city in the world. It still contained a few inhabitants when he made the tour of Arcadia. It was situate on the slope of Mount Lycæus. On this mountain Jupiter was worshipped, and, according to the Arcadians, he was born on its summit. Mount Lycæus was also sacred to Pan, who had a temple here, near which the Lycean games were performed. On the eastern side of the mountain was the temple of Apollo Parrhasius. The modern name of Mount Lycæus is, in its northern part, Dioforti, and in its southern, Tetrazi.

13. Phigalea, to the west of Lycosura, and beyond the River Platanistus, on the brow of a lofty and precipitous rock, which overhung the bed of the Neda. It was said to have been founded by Phigalus, son of Lycaon. The site is supposed to be occupied by the modern town of Paulizza. The so-called Phigalean marbles are a series of sculptures in alto-relievo, preserved in the British Museum, and derive their name from having been discovered among the ruins of a temple at the ancient Bassa, on Mount Cotylon, not far from the site of Phigalea. The subjects represented in them are the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithæ, and that of the Greeks and Amazons. These sculptures show a fine school of design, and are to be referred to about the same period with that when the Parthenon was erected at Athens. 14. Tegea, to the northeast of Megalopolis, and, next to Mantinea, the most ancient city of Arcadia. The Tegeatæ were early distinguished for their valor, and gained many victories over the Spartans. They furnished three thousand soldiers at the battle of Platææ. It was the only town of Arcadia which in Strabo's time preserved any degree of consequence and prosperity. Its remains are to be seen about an hour east of Tripolizza, at a site now called Piali.

Between Megalopolis and Tegea extended the range of Mount *Mænalus*, one of the most celebrated in Arcadia, and sacred to Pan, whose favorite haunt it was supposed to be. The surrounding district was called from it *Mænalia*, or the Mænalian region. The modern name of this mountain range is *Roino*, according to Cramer. Leake, however, gives the name of the highest summit as *Aidin*.

GRECIAN ISLANDS.

1. CYCLADES.

I. The name Cyclādes was applied by the ancient Greeks to that cluster (κύκλος) of islands which encircled Delos. Strabo says that the Cyclades were at first only twelve in number, but were afterward increased to fifteen. These, as we learn from Artemidorus; were Ceos, Cythnos, Serīphos, Mēlos, Siphnos, Cimōlos, Prepesinthos, Oleāros, Păros, Naxos, Syros, Mycōnos, Tēnos, Andros, and Gyāros, which last, however, Strabo himself was desirous of excluding, from its being a mere rock, as also Prepesinthos and Olearos.

II. It appears from the Greek historians that the Cyclades were first inhabited by the Phenicians, Carians, and Leleges, whose piratical habits rendered them formidable to the cities on the continent, till they were conquered and finally extirpated by Minos, king of Crete. These islands were subsequently

occupied for a short time by Polycrates, tyrant of Samos, and by the Persians; but after the battle of Mycale they became dependent on Athens.

III. Many of these islands are of volcanic formation; others are composed almost entirely of a pure white marble, of which the Parian, from Paros, where it was formerly most worked, is often mentioned by ancient writers. They now form a portion of the kingdom of Greece.

1. DELOS.

I. According to the poetic tradition, Delos was originally a floating island, moving beneath the surface of the Ægean, until Neptune caused it to become manifest $(\delta \tilde{\eta} \lambda o_{\varsigma})$ above the face of the waters, and made it stand firm, for the purpose of receiving Latona when about to be delivered of Apollo and Diana. It had several other ancient names, such as Asteria, Ortygia, Lagia, &c. It was named Ortygia from $\delta \rho \tau v \xi$, "a quail," and Lagia from $\lambda a \gamma \omega_{\varsigma}$, "a hare," the island abounding with these. On this account, according to Strabo, it was not allowed to have dogs at Delos, because they destroyed the quails and hares.

II. Delos was celebrated from the earliest times as a seat of the worship of Apollo, it being his natal island. His temple and that of his mother Latona were in the town of Delos, which was built on a little plain, on the west side of the island, at the foot of a lofty mountain called *Cynthus*, whence Apollo obtained the surname of *Cynthius*, and Diana that of *Cynthia*. The River *Inopus* ran into the sea to the south of the town.

III. Delos was a place of meeting for the Ionians in the time of Homer; and athletic sports, with dancing and singing, were carried on there in honor of Apollo. Polycrates of Samos consecrated the adjoining island of *Rhenea* to the Delian god, and joined it to Delos by a chain. Delos fell into the power of the Athenians in the time of Pisistratus, and then a partial purification of the island took place by the removal of the tombs which were within sight of the temple. In the year 426 B.C., a complete purification of Delos was made by the Athenians, and it was proclaimed that no one should thenceforth die or be born in the island, but that all persons likely to die or bring forth should be sent over to Rhenea.

IV. The Athenians instituted at Delos a festival, which returned at the beginning of every fifth year, called the Delia, and sent thither annually a sacred vessel called the Theoris, in commemoration of the delivery of Athens by Theseus from the Cretan tribute. In 422 B.C., the tenth year of the Peloponnesian war, the Athenians removed the whole population to Adramyttium, where they were allowed to settle by the satrap Pharnaces, and where many of them were treacherously murdered by the Persians. Finally, however, the Athenians restored those that survived to their country after the battle of Amphipolis, as they considered that their ill success in the war proceeded from the anger of the god on account of their conduct toward this unfortunate people. They had removed them, in the first instance, because not satisfied with the purifications which the island had undergone.

V. When Corinth was destroyed by Mummius, Delos succeeded to the commerce of that city, and was for a time very flourishing; but the generals of Mithradates having landed there in the war between that monarch and the Romans, the island was laid waste by them, and remained in a state of great desolation. In the days of their prosperity the Delians carried on a very extensive slave trade with Cilicia, and thousands of slaves were landed and sold in a single day. The modern names of this little island are Delo, Dili, and Sdilli. It is little more than a mass of bare rock.

2. CEOS, CYTHNOS, AND SERIPHUS.

I. Ceos, now Zea, lay off the promontory of Sunium. It once possessed four towns, namely, Iulis, Carthaa, Coresia, and Paessa (Ποιήεσσα). Of these, Iulis was the largest, and its site corresponds to that of the modern Zea, which gives name to the whole island. Iulis was the birth-place of Simonides and his nephew.

II. Cythnus, now Thermia, lay to the southeast of Ceos. It had a town named Cythnus, and now Thermia, from the hot springs in its vicinity, and this modern name has become that of the whole island. Cythnus was famed in ancient times for these hot springs, and also for its cheese.

III. Seriphos to the south of Cythnos, is now Serpho. It was celebrated in mythology as the scene of some of the most remarkable adventures of Perseus, who changed Polydectes, king of the island, and his subjects into stones, to avenge the wrongs offered to his mother Danaë. Strabo seems to account for this fable from the rocky nature of the island. In Juvenal's time state prisoners were sent thither.

3. MELOS AND SIPHNOS.

I. Mēlos, now Milo, lay, according to Strabo, seven hundred stadia from the Scyllæum Promontorium, and nearly as many from the Dictynnæum Promontorium of Crete. It was first inhabited by the Phænicians, and afterward colonized by the Lacedæmonians. The chief town was also called Melos. This island was taken by the Athenians during the Peloponnesian war, who put all the males to death, enslaved the women and children, and sent five hundred colonists into the island. Melos was a very rich and productive isle.

II. Siphnos, now Siphanto, lay to the southeast of Seriphus, and northeast of Melos. It contained gold and silver mines. In the age of Polycrates, the revenues of the Siphnians surpassed those of all the other islands, and enabled them to erect a treasury at Delphi equal to those of the most opulent cities, and their own buildings were sumptuously decorated with Parian marble. They afterward, however, sustained a heavy loss by a descent of the Samians, who levied upon the island a contribution of one hundred talents. In Strabo's time, this island was so poor and insignificant as to give rise to proverbs.

4. CIMŌLUS, PREPESINTHUS, AND OLEARUS.

I. Cimōlus, now Cimoli or Argentiera, lay to the northeast of Melos, and between that island and Siphnos. It produced a kind of fuller's earth, which was of great use in whitening cloth. Its figs also were much esteemed. The island was of small size. The town of Cimolus was situate on its western side.

II. Prepesinthus, a small island between Cimolus and Olearos, and now, according to Cramer, Spotiko or Despotiko. Others, however, give the modern name as Strongylo.

III. Olearos, now Antiparo, lay a short distance to the west of Paros. The ancients made the intervening space eighteen stadia. It is famous in modern times for its grotto.

5. PAROS AND NAXOS.

I. Păros, now Paro, to the northeast of Siphnos, was celebrated for its beautiful marble. Its early prosperity is evinced by the colonies it established at Thasos, and on the shores of the Hellespont. During the time of the Persian war it was the most flourishing and important of the Cyclades. After the battle

of Marathon it was besieged in vain by Miltiades for twenty-six days, and thus proved the cause of his disgrace. The marble quarries were on Mount Mar-

pessa. Paros was the birth-place of the poet Archilochus.

II. Naxos, now Naxia, lay to the east of Paros, and was the longest of the Cyclades. It was first peopled by the Carians, but afterward received a colony of Ionians from Athens. The failure of the expedition undertaken by the Persians against this island, at the suggestion of Aristagoras, led to the revolt of the Ionian states. Not long after, however, it was conquered by the Persian fleet under Datis and Artaphernes, who destroyed the city and temples, and enslaved the inhabitants. It soon, however, recovered from this blow. Naxos was celebrated for the worship of Bacchus, who, according to one legend, was born here. The principal town was Naxos; there were also two others, named Nysa and Tragea.

6. SYROS AND MYCONOS.

I. Syros, now Syra, lay between Cythnos and Rhenea, and was celebrated for having given birth to Pherecydes the philosopher. At the present day, the excellence of its harbor, and its central situation, have made it a considerable commercial depôt. It is the principal seat of the Protestant missionaries to the Levant.

II. Myconus, a little to the east of Delos, was a poor and barren island, and the inhabitants consequently were rapacious and fond of money. They are said to have lost their hair at an early age, whence the name of Myconian was proverbially used to designate a bald person. It was also said that the giants whom Hercules had conquered lay in a heap under this island; a fable which gave rise to another saying (μία Μύκονος), applied to those authors who confusedly mixed together things which ought to have been treated of separately. The island had two towns. Its modern name is Myconi.

7. TENOS, ANDROS, &c.

I. Tēnos, now Tino, lay to the northwest of Myconos. It was also called Hydrussa, from the abundance of its springs. Near the town of Tenos was a temple of Neptune, held in great veneration, and much frequented by the inhabitants of the surrounding isles.

II. Andros, now Andro, lay to the northwest of the preceding. The island was a poor one, and was fruitlessly sought to be reduced by Themistocles.

Eventually, however, it was rendered tributary.

III. Gyärus, the last of the Cyclades. So wretched and poor was this barren rock, inhabited by only a few fishermen, that they deputed one of their number to go to Augustus, then at Corinth after the battle of Actium, to petition that their taxes, which amounted to one hundred and fifty drachmæ, might be diminished, as they were not able to raise more than one hundred. It became subsequently notorious as the spot to which criminals or suspected persons were banished by the Roman emperors. The modern name is Ghioura.

2. SPORADES.

THE Greeks comprised under the name of Sporades the numerous islands scattered around the Cyclades, with which, in fact, several of them are intermixed, and those also which lay toward Crete and the coast of Asia Minor. The following are the most worthy of notice:

1. Thera, now Santorin, about seven hundred stadia to the north of Crete, and nearly two hundred in circumference. It appears to have been produced by the

action of submarine fire, as well as the island of Therasia contiguous to it. This latter still retains its name. Thera was first occupied by the Phænicians, but was afterward colonized by the Lacedæmonians, who settled there the descendants of the Minyæ, after they had been expelled from Lemnos by the Pelasgi. Several generations afterward, a colony was led from this island under Battus, a descendant of the Minyæ, into Africa, and there founded the city of Cyrene, about 630 B.C. 2. Anāphe, now Anphio, to the east of Thera. It was so named, according to Apollonius, from the circumstance of Apollo's having appeared (ἀναφαίνεσθαι) in this quarter to the Argonauts in a storm. A temple was, in consequence, erected to him in this island, under the name of Egletes (Αἰγλήτης), or "the radiant one."

3. Ios, north of Thera, and now Nio. Here, according to some accounts, Homer was interred. It was also said that his mother was a native of this island. 4. Sicinos, to the west of Ios, now Sikino, but originally called Enoe, from the quantity of wine which it produced. 5. Pholegandros, to the west of Sicinos, now Policandro. It was so barren and rocky that Aratus called it the iron isle. 6. Donysa, to the northeast of Ios, and now Raclia. 7. Amorgos, to the east of Donysa, and now Amorgo. It was of considerable size, and contained three towns, namely, Arcesine, now Arkesini; Ægialus, now Porto S. Anna; and Minoa, now Porto Bathy. Amorgos gave its name to a peculiar kind of flax $(\dot{a}\mu\rho\rho\gamma l\varsigma)$ produced here, and remarkable for its fine quality. It was also the birth-place of Simonides, the iambic poet. 8. Astypalēa, to the southeast of Amorgos, and now Stanpalia. It contained a town of the same name. It is said that hares having been introduced into this island from Anaphe, it was so overrun by them that the inhabitants were compelled to consult an oracle, which advised their hunting them with dogs, and that in one year six thousand were caught. 9. Tēlos, to the southeast of the preceding, and near the coast of Asia Minor. It was noted for a particular ointment made there. The modern name is Episcopia. 10. Nisyrus, to the northwest of Telos. According to the legend, it was separated from Cos by Neptune, in order that he might hurl it against the giant Polybotes. The modern name is Nisari. 11. Carpăthus, between Crete and Rhodes, and now Scarpanto. It contained four towns.

3. CRETA.

1. NAME, DESCRIPTION, &c.

I. Crēta, now Candia, is one of the largest islands in the Mediterranean Sea, and lay to the south of all the Cyclades and Sporades. It was fabled to have derived its name from the Curetes, who are said to have been its first inhabitants.

II. Its length from east to west is about one hundred and sixty miles; its breadth is very unequal. In some places, toward the middle of the island, it is about thirty-five miles broad; in others, about twenty miles. Between the Amphimallius Sinus and Phanix Portus it is only ten miles; and in the eastern part, between the Didymi Sinus and Hierapytna, it is merely six miles across.

III. Crete has three principal capes: 1. Salmonium Promontorium, now Cape Salmone, at the eastern extremity. 2. Corycum Promontorium, now Cape Karabusa, at the western end, looking toward the Peloponnesus. 3. Criú Metōpon, now Cape Crio, at the southwestern extremity. Its coast, especially toward the north, is indented by deep gulfs. The southern coast is rugged and iron bound. A continuous mass of highland runs through the whole length of the island, about the middle of which, Mount Ida, now called Psilorati, rises far above the

rest, to the height of seven thousand six hundred and seventy-four feet. The mountains in the western part were called *Leuci Montes* ($\Lambda \epsilon \nu \kappa \dot{\alpha}$ " $O\rho \eta$): The rivers are only a kind of torrents, very shallow in the dry season.

IV. The modern name Candia comes from the Arabic Chandea, an appellation given by the Saracens to the town founded by them, and which still exists as the capital of the island, signifying "an intrenchment."

2. SKETCH OF CRETAN HISTORY.

I. Historians and poets tell us of a king called Minos, who lived before the Trojan war, and resided at Cnosus. He ruled over the greater part of the island. Minos was the legislator of the country, and his laws became celebrated among the Greeks, who borrowed from them. Lycurgus, in particular, is said to have taken many of the features of the Spartan constitution from the Cretan code. Minos was also the first who had a navy. He cleared the Grecian seas of pirates, and expelled the Carians from the Cyclades. Idomeneus, a grandson of Minos, was one of the chiefs who went with Agamemnon to the siege of Troy. On his return, however, he was driven from his throne by a faction, and sailed to Iapygia in Lower Italy, where he founded Salentum. At this period the island appears to have been inhabited by a mixed population of Greeks and barbarians. The eastern parts of the island were colonized by the Dorians, under the command of Althamenes of Argos, after the death of Codrus, and the foundation of Megara.

II. After the expulsion of Idomeneus, the principal cities of Crete formed themselves into several republics, for the most part independent, while others were connected by federal ties. These, though not exempted from the dissensions which so universally distracted the Greek republics, maintained for a long time a considerable degree of prosperity, owing to the good system of laws and education which had been so early instituted throughout the island by the laws of Minos. The Cretan soldiers were held in high estimation as light troops and archers. The character of the inhabitants, however, was decidedly bad, and they were accused of habitual lying and deception, and of the grossest immorality.

III. Crete was conquered by the Romans, B.C. 67, under the command of the proconsul Quintus Metellus. It became a Roman province, and a colony was sent to Cnosus. It remained subject to the Roman emperors, and afterward to the Byzantines, until A.D. 823, when it was conquered by the Saracens, who built the town of *Candia*, which, besides giving name to, has ever since been regarded as the capital of the island.

3. PLACES IN CRETE.

HOMER, in one passage, (Il., 2, 649), ascribes to Crete one hundred cities, and in another (Od., 20, 174) only ninety. This variation has been accounted for by some on the supposition that ten of the Cretan cities were founded subsequently to the siege of Troy. Others, however, affirmed that during the siege of Troy the ten deficient cities had been destroyed by the enemies of Idomeneus. In the present enumeration we will name merely a few of the most important places.

1. Phalasarna, to the south of Corycum Promontorium, and a port of some consequence in this, the western part of the island. It was the nearest Cretan harbor to the Peloponnesus. 2. Cydonia, to the east, on the northern coast, and one of the most ancient and important towns of Crete. It was said to have been founded by a party of Samians, exiled by Polycrates. The Mālum Cydo-

nium, or "Quince," derived its name from this place. Its ruins are on the site of Jerami. 3. Amphimalla, to the southeast, near the modern fortress of Armiro. 4. Cnōsus or Gnōsus, some distance to the east, the ancient royal city of Crete, and capital of Minos. Its earlier name was Caratus, according to Strabo. Near this place was the celebrated labyrinth, constructed by Dædalus, but of which no traces remained in the time of Diodorus. Cnosus long preserved its rank among the chief cities of Crete, and by its alliance with Gortys obtained the dominion of nearly the whole island. The vestiges of this place are discernible to the east of the modern town of Candia. The precise site of the ruins is called Long Candia.

5. Minoa, some distance to the southeast, and on the Didymi Sinus, now Gulf of Mirabello. Here is the narrowest part of the island, the distance across to Hierapytna being merely six miles. To the southeast is Mons Dicte, celebrated as the birth-place of Jupiter, and now Lassiti or Lasthi. Here was the Dictæan cave, in which the infant Jove was fed by bees. 6. Hierapytna, on the southern coast, and directly across from Minoa. It was a town of great antiquity, and was fabled to have been founded by the Corybantes. It was successively called Cyrba, Pytna, Camirus, and Hierapytna. The site corresponds to that of the modern Girapietra. 7. Lyctus, to the northwest, and an important town in the days of Homer and Hesiod. According to the latter poet, Jupiter was brought up on Mount Ægæus in its vicinity. Lyctus subsequently received a Lacedæmonian colony. It was destroyed, however, by the Cnosians. The inhabitants ranked high in regard to moral character among the other Cretans. 8. Prasus, to the southwest, and one of the most ancient cities of the island. It was destroyed by the people of Hierapytna. The ruins are near Castel Belvedere. 9. Gortys or Gortyna, to the west, and next to Cnosus in splendor and importance. It was situate on the River Lethæus, ninety stadia from the Libyan Sea, and had two harbors, Lebena and Metalla. To the northwest was the Cretan Mount Ida, now Psiloriti. 10. Phanix Portus, farther to the west, and now probably Castel Franco, a little to the east of Sphakia. The ship which conveyed St. Paul to Rome endeavored to put in here before it was overtaken by the tempest. In the westernmost part of the island were the Leuci Montes, now Aspro Vouna.

The Grecian islands that remain to be described will be noticed under the head of Asia.

ASIA.

1. NAME.

I. Homer applies the name of Asia to a small district of Mæonia or Lydia, situated near the River Cayster.

II. It would appear that the Ionian Greeks, on their first arrival on the banks of the Cayster, found the name of Asia attached to this part of the continent, and communicated it to their European countrymen, who, in process of time, applied it to all the countries situate to the east of Greece.

Obs. 1. It would be wrong, however, to suppose that the name Asia belonged merely to that part of the continent with which the Ionian colonists first became acquainted. It would rather seem to have been given at an early period to va-

rious spots connected with the worship of the Asi, and all pointing to some region of the remote east, where the name most probably originated.

2. The term Asi is a general appellation given in the mythology of northern Europe to the deities that came in with Odin from the east. Asia, therefore, will mean the land of the Asi, or the "Holy Land," and will indicate the region where religion arose, and whence it spread to the countries of the west. Compare Anthon's Class. Dict., s. v. Asi.

2. EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.

I. The ancients were unacquainted with the extreme northern and eastern portions of Asia. They seem to have been aware, however (at least after the expedition of Alexander the Great), that this quarter of the globe was washed by three different oceans, and on the western side by an inland sea, the most considerable in the world.

II. The boundaries of ancient Asia, therefore, may be given as follows: on the north, the great Northern Ocean; on the east, the great Eastern Ocean; on the south, the Oceanus Indicus, or Indian Ocean; on the southwest, the Sinus Arabicus, or Red Sea, which separated it from Egypt. The western boundary was formed by the Mediterranean and Ægean Seas, and a line drawn through the Hellespontus, or Dardanelles, the Propontis, or Sea of Marmara, the Pontus Euxinus, or Black Sea, the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Azof, and then by the River Tanaïs, or Don.

Obs. Herodotus mentions the *Phāsis* as separating Asia from Europe, but later and better authorities name the Tanaïs. The older geographers considered Egypt sometimes partially, sometimes entirely as belonging to Asia.

3. PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

I. From the earliest records of European history, the Homeric poems, we learn that an intercourse existed, before the war of Troy, between the inhabitants of Europe and Asia. But, as far as we can infer from our authorities, it was more of a hostile than a pacific nature. Commercial exchange seems to have been nearly confined to a few Phœnician vessels, which visited the islands of the Archipelago and some ports of Greece. The establishment of Greek colonies in Ionia, and the Greek navigation of the Black Sea, gradually led to a knowledge of western Asia.

II. About 550 B.C., a large number of separate states were incorporated into the extensive Persian empire, which comprehended nearly all the countries between the Mediterranean Sea on the west, and the Belur Dagh on the east, the Caspian on the north, and the mountains which border the valley of the Indus on the south; and as many of the Greek colonists were placed in close communication with this empire, geographical knowledge of the interior rapidly extended.

III. Before the time when Herodotus wrote, the Persian empire had become

stationary. Accordingly, we find that the geographical knowledge of the Greeks, for more than a century, did not advance beyond the ancient boundaries of that empire. But as the intercourse, both hostile and pacific, between the Greeks and Persians, had during that period considerably increased, their knowledge of the different provinces composing the Persian empire was also enlarged. By the subsequent conquests of Alexander, the remoter provinces of the Persian monarchy were at once opened to the Greeks.

IV. The successors of Alexander, being almost continually engaged in wars among themselves, did not add largely to the then existing knowledge of Asia. At a later date, when the Romans extended the boundary of their empire to the Tigris and the Euphrates, their military expeditions being carried on in countries previously known, could add very little to the store of information. We ought, however, to make an exception with respect to the Caucasus. In their wars with Mithradates, king of Pontus, the armies of the Romans passed the boundaries of the then known world, and arrived at Mount Caucasus, with whose extent and situation they became acquainted, though they did not enter the valleys which lie in its bosom. In proceeding farther to the shores of the Caspian Sea, they got information of a commercial road through Bactria, by which the countries on the south of the Caspian Sea carried on an active commerce with India; and soon after another route was discovered, which led over the high table land of Upper Asia to the Seres or Chinese.

OBS. 1. The knowledge which the ancients acquired concerning the geography of Asia is embodied in the systematic works of Strabo, Pliny, and Ptolemy, the last of whom raised geography to a science by basing it on astronomical principles. From these writers, it is evident that only those countries into which the Macedonian conqueror had carried his arms were known with some degree of correctness as to their general features, and that beyond them their knowledge was limited to a few places traversed by commercial roads, and to the harbors.

2. Besides the works just mentioned, the "Periplus" of Nearchus, and another probably written in the second century, and attributed to Arrian, give a more particular description of the coast of eastern Africa and Asia. Another "Periplus" likewise, which certainly is the work of Arrian, contains a brief description of the Pontus Euxinus. As to the geography of northern Asia, few additions seem to have been made after the time of Herodotus and Alexander. In some respects there seems to have been a retrograde movement, as Herodotus knew the Caspian to be a lake, which Strabo believed to communicate with the Northern Ocean. Ptolemy, in his map, restored the Caspian to its true character of an inland sea, but he placed its length from east to west, instead of from north to south as Herodotus had done.

4. SEAS, GULFS, STRAITS, &c.

In enumerating these, we will include some which have been already mentioned, but which may be said to belong in common to both Asia and Europe:

1. Mare Scythicum	. Frozen Sea (p. 9).
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- 2. Oceanus Eous Eastern Ocean.
- 3. Oceanus Indicus . . . Indian Ocean.
- 4. Mare Erythræum . . . (Erythræan Sea).
- 5. Mare Mediterraneum . . . Mediterranean (p. 8).
- 6. Mare Ægeum Ægean Sea (p. 489.)
- 7. Propontis Sea of Marmara (p. 425)
- 8. Pontus Euxinus Black Sea (p. 236).
- 9. Palus Mæōtis Sea of Azof (p. 237).

- 10. Mare Caspium Caspian Sea.
- 11. Palūdes recipientes Araxem . Sea of Aral.
- Obs. 1. The name Mare Erythræum was first applied by the Greeks to the whole ocean, extending from the coast of Ethiopia to the island of Taprobana, when their knowledge of India was as yet in its infancy. It would mean at that time the whole Indian Ocean. Afterward, however, when the Greeks learned the existence of an Indian Ocean in a special sense, the term Erythrean Sea was applied merely to the sea below Arabia, or, more strictly speaking, between the peninsulas of Arabia and India.
- 2. The Caspian Sea was known to the Greeks and Romans. Herodotus, the first who mentions it (i., 203), calls it by this name, and the appellation would seem to have been derived either from the Caspii, who inhabited its southern coast, or from casp, "a mountain," in allusion to its vicinity to Caucasus. Later writers, however, limited the term Caspian to the western portion, calling the eastern Mare Hyrcanium, or the Hyrcanian Sea. At one time it became a general belief among the ancients that the Caspian was connected with the Arctic Sea by a strait, an opinion which seems to have arisen from some slight information obtained respecting the mouth of the Wolga. Ptolemy, however, who knew the Wolga, which is named by him Rha, does not mention the existence of this strait.
- 3. The ancients were not acquainted with the Sea of Aral, but confounded it with the Caspian. The language of the text is mainly based upon the account of Herodotus, who speaks of a large river named Araxes, coming in from the east, and losing itself amid marshes, with the exception of one of its mouths, which flowed into the Caspian. This river is thought by some to have been the Iaxartes, by others the Oxus, both of which empty into the Sea of Aral. For a discussion of the whole subject, consult Bähr, ad Herod., i., 202.

The following are the most important gulfs, commencing with the remote east:

- 1. Magnus Sinus Gulf of Siam.
- 2. Gangēticus Sinus Bay of Bengal.
- 3. Persicus Sinus Persian Gulf.
- 4. Avalītes Sinus Bay of Zeyla.
- 5. Arăbicus Sinus Red Sea.
- 6. Issicus Sinus Bay of Iskenderoon.
- 7. Doridis Sinus Gulf of Syme.
- 8. Ceramicus Sinus Gulf of Cos.
- 9. Iassius Sinus Gulf of Asyn Alessi.
- 10. Smyrnæus Sinus Gulf of Smyrna.
- 11. Adramyttēnus Sinus . . . Gulf of Adramyti.
- 12. Cianus Sinus Gulf of Mondanich.
- 13. Astacēnus Sinus Gulf of Isnid.

Among the straits may be enumerated the following, some of which have already been mentioned:

1. Dire or Dere. . . Strait of Bab-el-mandeb.

- 2. Hellespontus Dardanelles (p. 425).
- 3. Bosporus Thracicus . Strait of Constantinople (p. 9).
- 4. Bosporus Cimmerius . Strait of Caffa or Feodosia (p. 9).

Obs. 1. The term Dire is in Greek $\Delta e \iota \rho \eta$, and signifies "the neck." The name is said to have been given to the strait by the Greeks, from its appearance as it stretched along the coast. Ptolemy, however, writes the name $\Delta \eta \rho \eta$, Dere. Mannert maintains that Dire is now Ras-bel, and that the opposite promontory of Posidium is now Bab-el-mandeb. This modern name means "the Gate of Danger."

5. PROMONTORIES.

1.	Satyrorum Promontorium	. ,		Point Condor.
,2.	Magnum Promontorium			Romania Point.
3.	Comaria Promontorium			Cape Comorin.
4.	Syagros Promontorium.			Cape Ras-al-Had.
5.	Carmelum Promontorium			Cape Carmel.
6.	Anemurium Promontorium			Cape Anamour.
7.	Sacrum Promontorium .			Cape Kelidoni.
8.	Triopium Promontorium			Cape Krio.
9.	Trogilium Promontorium			Cape S. Maria.
	Coryceum Promontorium			Cape Courco.
11.	Phanæ Promontorium .			Cape Mastico.
12.	Melæna Promontorium .			Cape Kara-bouroun
13.	Lectum Promontorium .			Cape Baba.
14.	Sigæum Promontorium.			Cape Jenischer.
	Rhætēum Promontorium			Cape It-Ghelmes.
16.	Calpe Promontorium .			Cape Kirpe.
	Carambis Promontorium			Cape Karempi.
				4

6. RIVERS.

18. Iasonium Promontorium . . . Cape Iasun.

(A.) Rivers emptying into the Oceanus Indicus, or Indian Ocean.

1. Ganges, a celebrated river of India, rising in Mons Imaus, or the Himmaleh Mountains, and flowing into the Sinus Gangeticus, or Bay of Bengal. It is computed to be fifteen hundred miles in length.

2. Indus, another celebrated river of India, rising also in Mons Imaus, and falling, after a course of thirteen hundred miles, into the Erythraum Mare, a part of the Oceanus Indicus. It receives in its course the following five rivers, which reach it through a common affluent: 1. The Hydaspes, now the Jhylum.

2. The Acesines, now the Chunab. 3. The Hydraotes, now the Ravee. 4. The Hyphäsis, now the Beyah. 5. The Xeradrus, now the Setledge. The country watered by these five rivers was called by the Greek writers Pentapötămia, and

is now the *Pendjab*, or "country of the five rivers." Of these streams the Hyphasis was the limit of Alexander's conquests. Ptolemy gives the Indus seven mouths. At the present day, however, it enters the sea in one volume, the lateral streams being absorbed by the sand without reaching the ocean.

3. Tigris, a large river of Asia, rising in the mountains of Armenia Major, in the district of Sophene, and falling into the Euphrates. The stream formed by their junction was called Pasitigris, now Shat-el-Arab, or "the River of Arabia." The length of the Tigris is eight hundred miles.

4. Euphrätes, a celebrated river rising near Arze, the modern Erze Roum, in the most northern branch of Mount Taurus. It receives the Arsanias from the east, a river often mistaken for the true Euphrates. Its main tributary, however, is the Tigris. The Euphrates flows into the Sinus Persicus after a course of one thousand one hundred and forty-seven miles.

(B.) Rivers emptying into the Mare Caspium.

1. Rha, now the Wolga. No ancient writer prior to Ptolemy mentions either its name or course.

2. Araxes, a river of Armenia Major, issuing from Mons Abus, on the side opposite to that whence the Arsanias, or southern arm of the Euphrates, flows. It runs east until it meets the mountains which separate Armenia from northern Media, when it turns to the north, and, after receiving the Cyrus, now the Kur, falls into the Caspian. It is now the Arras.

(C.) Rivers emptying into the Sea of Aral.

1. Iaxartes, rising in the chain of Mons Imaus, and flowing into the Sea of Aral after a course of one thousand six hundred and eighty-two miles. It is now the Sir. Ptolemy makes it flow into the Caspian, as he was unacquainted with the existence of the Sea of Aral. Herodotus, long before, had called the Iaxartes by the name of Araxes, and confounded it with the Oxus.

2. Oxus, rising in the northeastern extremity of Bactriana, and flowing for the greater part of its course in a northwest direction. It receives numerous tributaries, and falls, after a course of twelve hundred miles, into the Sea of Aral. It is now the Amoo or Jihon. The ancient writers make it flow into the Caspian, but they were ignorant of the existence of the Sea of Aral.

(D.) Rivers emptying into the Palus Mæotis.

1. Tanais, now Don, forming the boundary in this quarter between Asia and Europe. It has been already mentioned (p. 236).

2. Hypānis, called also Vardanus, rising in the central part of Caucasus, and falling into the Palus Mæotis by several mouths. It is now the Kuban. We must not confound it with the European Hypanis, now the Bog, which flows into the Euxine.

(E.) Rivers emptying into the Pontus Euxinus.

1. Phāsis, rising in the southern portion of the Moschian Mountains, which were regarded as belonging to Armenia, and flowing through parts of Armenia, Iberia, and Colchis, into the Euxine. It is now the Rion or Rioni. The Turks call it the Fasch. It is famous in mythology from Jason's having obtained in its vicinity the golden fleece.

2. Lycus, rising on the confines of Armenia Minor, and flowing into the Euxine to the southeast of Amisus. It is now the Yeshil-Ermak, or "the Green

River." The Lycus receives the River Iris, which also rises on the confines of Armenia Minor, and is now called the Tokat-su.

- 3. Halys, now the Kizıl-Ermak, or "Red River," rising on the confines of Pontus and Armenia Minor, and entering the sea some distance to the northwest of Amisus. It is the largest river in the peninsula of Asia Minor. This river formed the eastern boundary of the dominions of Cræsus, king of Lydia.
- 4. Sangarius, rising in Mount Adoreus, a branch of Mount Dindymus, near the southern confines of Galatia, and falling into the Euxine after flowing through Galatia and Bithynia. It is now the Sakaria.

(F.) Rivers emptying into the Mediterranean.

- 1. Scamander, a river near Troy, rising in Mount Ida, and, after receiving the Simoïs, falling into the Ægean at the entrance of the Hellespont. It is now the Bounarbachi. The modern name of the Simoïs is Mendere-Sou. The Scamander was also called the Xanthus.
- 2. Hermus, rising in Mount Dindymus in Phrygia, and falling into the Sinus Smyrnæus. It received in its course the waters of the Hyllus and Pactolus. The modern name is the Sarabat.
- 3. Mæander, rising near Celænæ in Phrygia, and, after forming the common boundary between Lydia and Caria, falling into the Ægean below the promontory of Mycale. It was remarkable for its winding course. The modern name is the Minder.
- 4. Xanthus, a river of Lycia, rising in the range of Mount Taurus, and falling into the Mediterranean below the Cragi Vertices, or the projections made by the range of Cragus on the Lycian coast. It is now the Etchen Chai.
- 5. Cydnus, a river of Cilicia Campestris, rising in Mount Taurus, and falling into the sea near Tarsus, which stood upon its banks. It was remarkable for the coldness of its waters, and Alexander the Great nearly lost his life by bathing in them. It is now the Tersus-Chai.
- 6. Orontes, a river of Syria, rising on the eastern side of the range of Libanus, and falling into the Mediterranean about six leagues below Antiochia. It is now the Aasi.

7. MOUNTAINS.

- 1. Mons Taurus, according to the later Greek geographers, a great chain of mountains extending nearly due east and west from the shores of the Ægean to those of the supposed Eastern Ocean, and dividing Asia into two parts, Asia within the Taurus, and Asia without the Taurus. The chain of Taurus, however, properly so called, commences at the southwestern point of Asia Minor, and proceeding eastward, parallel and near to the Mediterranean, it incloses between itself and the coast Pamphylia and Cilicia. At the River Pyramus the chain divides into two, namely, that of Amanus, which proceeds to the east, dividing Syria from Asia Minor, and the continuation of Taurus, which runs northeast, along the southeast side of Cappadocia, across the Euphrates into the northern part of Armenia, where it joins Mons Masius. This chain now bears the name of Enamas, Ramadan, and Gourin.
- 2. Antitaurus, a great branch thrown off by Taurus, and which passes through the middle of Cappadocia, northeast to the sources of the Halys, and thence east to the Euphrates. Its modern name is Alidagh.
- 3. Caucăsus, a lofty range of mountains between the Euxine and Caspian Seas. This chain is entirely unconnected with any of the great mountain sys-

tems of Europe and Asia. The intercourse between the countries south and north of the Caucasus is carried on by two roads. The most easterly runs along the shores of the Caspian, and was called by the ancients Albania Pyla. It is now the pass of Derbend. The other traverses the Caucasus nearly in its centre. The ancients called it the Porta Caucasia. It is now the pass of Dariel.

4. Emōdi Montes, a part, in fact, of the range of Mons Imaus, or the great chain of Himmalah. That part of the chain which Alexander crossed in order to invade Bactriana was called Paropamisus; the more easterly continuation of the range was termed Emodi Montes; and its still farther continuation in a northeastern direction was styled Imaus.

MAIN DIVISIONS OF ASIA.

I. The most natural division of this continent will be into,
1. Southern Asia. 2. Central Asia. 3. Northern Asia.

II. By Southern Asia is meant the country south of Taurus, in the enlarged sense of this latter name, now Asiatic Turkey, Arabia, Persia, India, Thibet, and the islands of Southern Asia.

III. By Central Asia is meant the Caucasian region, Asiatic Tartary, Mongolia, Corea, Japan, &c.; by Northern Asia, on the other hand, Asiatic Russia.

1. SOUTHERN ASIA.

I. SOUTHERN Asia comprises the country from the fortieth degree of north latitude nearly to the equator. It possesses great advantages over Central and Northern Asia in respect of agriculture, and the abundance of its costly and varied products.

II. Here it appears that man first adopted political governments and fixed residences; here, therefore, was always the main seat of Asiatic industry, exhibited in the manufacture of fine cottons, silks, &c. The natural marts in the interior were on the great rivers, and the principal caravan roads were from the Euxine across Armenia, or from the Wolga across the Iaxartes, far into the east. Marts of the Greeks and Phænicians crowded the western shores.

III. Southern Asia may be subdivided into, 1. Southwestern Asia, from the Mediterranean to the Indus. 2. Southeastern Asia, from the Indus to the Eastern Ocean.

(A.) SOUTHWESTERN ASIA.

I. This country, again, may be subdivided into three parts,

namely, 1. The countries between the Mediterranean and the Euphrates. 2. The countries between the Euphrates and Tigris. 3. The countries between the Tigris and Indus.

COUNTRIES WEST OF THE EUPHRATES.

The grand divisions of the land between the Mediterranean and the Euphrates are, 1. Asia Minor. 2. Syria, including Phanicia and Palestine. 3. Arabia.

I. ASIA MINOR.

I. Asia Minor is a peninsula, bounded on the north by the Pontus Euxinus; on the northwest by the Thracian Bosporus, the Propontis, and the Hellespont; on the west by the Ægean Sea; on the south by the Mediterranean; on the southeast by Syria, from which it is separated by the range of Mount Amanus; and on the east by Armenia, from which it is separated by the rivers Euphrates and Acampsis.

II. The interior of this peninsula forms a westerly continuation of the Armenian highlands, separated from the coast on the north by the range of Mount Taurus, and on the south by that of Anti-Taurus, and broken toward the west into chains of lower mountains, such as Tmolus, Sipylus, Ida, and Olympus. The highest point is Mount Argæus, now Arjish Dagh, on the Upper Halys, the point from which the rivers run in different directions into the Euxine and Mediterranean Seas, and the Euphrates.

III. Asia Minor contained twelve provinces, namely, three on the southern coast, Cilicia, Pamphylia, Lycia; three on the western coast, Caria, Lydia, Mysia; three on the northern coast, Bithynia, Paphlagonia, Pontus; and three in the interior, Phrygia, Pisidia, and Cappadocia. Under Phrygia was comprehended Galatia; and under Cappadocia, Lycaonia and Isauria. This order will be observed in describing them, and we will then give an account of the islands along the southern and western coasts.

IV. The name Asia Minor was not employed by the Roman writers in the classical period. It occurs first in Orosius, who flourished about the beginning of the fifth century of our era. The Greeks and Romans had no special designation before this time for the Asiatic peninsula, for the name 'Ασία ἐντὸς τοῦν

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Taύρου, or Asia Cis Taurum, only referred to the western half, as did also Pliny's Asia Propria. The Roman province of Asia, or Asia Proconsularis, comprised Mysia, Lydia, Caria, and Phrygia, with the exception of Lycaonia.

CILICIA.

I. Cilicia was bounded on the north by Mount Taurus, on the south by the Mediterranean, on the east by Mount Amanus, and on the west by Pamphylia and Pisidia. It was divided into two parts, the names of which were derived from their physical character. The western division was called Cilicia Trachēa, (Κιλικία Τραχεῖα), that is, mountainous or rough Cilicia; and the eastern division Cilicia Campestris (Κιλικία πεδιάς), that is, level Cilicia.

II. The inhabitants of the interior were of Syrian origin. The coast was first settled by the Phœnicians, and afterward by the Greeks. The character of the Cilicians did not stand high. They became addicted to piracy, and at one time ruled a great part of the Mediterranean. They were put down completely, however, by Pompey. Cilicia Trachēa produced valuable ship timber in great abundance. Cilicia Campestris was well watered and fertile, and has always been famous for a fine breed of horses. The annual tribute to Darius consisted of three hundred and sixty white horses, and five hundred talents of silver.

III. The rivers of Cilicia all come down from Mount Taurus, and as they all carry down the melted snow from this mountain chain, the water of all, but especially of the Cydnus, is extremely cold. Among them may be named, 1. The Pyramus, now the Jyhoon. 2. The Sarus, now the Sihoon. 3. The Cydnus, now the Tersoos. Alexander the Great nearly lost his life by bathing, when overheated, in this cold stream; and it proved fatal in a later age to the Emperor Frederic Barbarossa. 4. The Lamus, now the Lamas, separating Cilicia Campestris from Trachea. 5. The Calycadnus, now the Ghiuk-Sou. 6. The Selinus, now the Selenti.

PLACES IN CILICIA.

In Cilicia Trachea we have, 1. Coraccsium, the first town after leaving Pamphylia. It was a strong and important fortress, on a steep rock, and is now Alaya. 2. Hamazia, to the east. The country around was famed for its cedars, and was given by Antony to Cleopatra for the construction of her fleet. 3. Se-

linus, at the mouth of the Selinus. Here Trajan died, and it was afterward called Trajanopolis. It is now Selenti, which is the modern name also of the river. 4. Anemurium, a town and promontory, now Anamour. This cape is the most southern point of Asia Minor. 5. Celenderis, to the northeast, a Phoenician settlement originally. Afterward a colony from Samos was established here. It was a place of great strength, built on a lofty precipice, and is now Chelindreh. 6. Seleucia Trachēa, in a fertile plain, watered by the Calycadnus. It was founded by Seleucus Nicator, and became distinguished as a school of literature and philosophy. Its remains are called Sclefkieh. 7. Corycus, the chief landing place from Crete, and a city of great importance under the later Roman emperors, now Korghoz. Near it was a deep vale famed for producing the best saffron, and containing also a cave fabled to have been inhabited by the monster Typhon, but probably the crater of an extinct volcano. 8. Homonada, in the interior, north of Anemurium, and the chief town of the Homonadenses, a hardy mountaineer race, subdued by Sulpicius Quirinius, the Cyrenius of St. Luke. D'Anville makes it answer to the modern Ermenak. 9. Claudiopolis, to the east, on a branch of the Calycadnus, and now probably Mout. 10. Olbia, to the east, famed for its temple of Jupiter, the priests of which enjoyed great power and wealth, and were at one time lords of the whole of Cilicia Trachea.

In Cilicia Campestris we have, 1. Sŏli, the first maritime town after crossing the River Lamus. It was founded by a mixed colony of Achæans and Rhodians from Lindus, in Rhodes. The inhabitants, from their communication with the Cilicians of the interior, spoke in time incorrect and ungrammatical Greek, whence the term σολοικισμός, "a solecism." Having been nearly depopulated by Tigranes, king of Armenia, it was founded anew by Pompey, who settled here a colony of Cilician pirates, whom he had conquered, and the place then took the name of Pompeiopölis. It was the birth-place of the philosopher Chrysippus, and the poets Philemon and Arātus. The site is now called Mezetlu. 2. Anchiale, said to have been founded by Sardanapalus, king of Assyria, and to have contained his tomb. 3. Tarsus, on the River Cydnus, and the capital city under the Persian sway, the tributary kings of Cilicia residing here. It was a very flourishing city also under the successors of Alexander, and still more so under the Roman sway, Julius Cæsar having granted unto its citizens both freedom and exemption from tribute, for having zealously espoused his cause, and these privileges having been confirmed by Augustus. It was to these acts of favor and protection that St. Paul, who was a native of Tarsus, owed the right of being a free-born citizen of the place. Tarsus was celebrated, also, under the earlier Roman emperors, for its schools of literature and philosophy, which rivalled those of Athens and Alexandrea. Julian the Apostate was buried here. The modern name is Tersoos, and it is still the chief town of this part of Karamania. The River Cydnus has undergone a great change here, from the deposits carried down from the mountains; formerly it allowed large vessels of war to approach Tarsus, now none but the smallest boats :an enter the stream. 4. Mopsucrēne, to the north, just below the point where the Cilician pass (Pyla Ciliciae) enters Cilicia. 5. Adāna, to the southeast, on the River Sarus, and of Phænician origin. It is still called Adana, and gives name to the modern pachalik, which corresponds nearly to the ancient Cilicia Campestris. 6. Mallus, to the southeast, on the Pyramus. Between this place and Tarsus was the Aleian Plain, or "Plain of Wandering" ('Αλήϊον πεδίον), where Bellerophon wandered after having been thrown from the winged steed Pegasus. 7. Anazarba, to the northeast, at the foot of Mount Anazarbus, and called, in Roman

times, Casarēa ad Anazarbum. It was the birth-place of Dioscorides the naturalist, and Oppian the poet. 8. Issus, at the base of Mount Amanus, and at the head waters of the Sinus Issicus, now the Gulf of Scanderoon. In its vicinity was fought the second great battle between Alexander and the Persians, the latter being commanded by Darius in person. 9. Alexandrea, surnamed ad Issum (κατὰ Ἰσσον), from its being situate near the battle field of Issus, and built in commemoration of that victory. It is now Scanderoon or Alexandretta, a small town, but with a fine harbor. 10. Myriandrus, to the west of and near the preceding, a place of considerable trade, and of Phænician origin. 11. Pindenissus, in the interior, to the northeast, a town of the Eleuthĕro-Cilĭces, a wild and fierce mountaineer race. It was a place of great strength, but was taken by Cicero, when proconsul of Cilicia, after a siege of fifty-seven days.

Before leaving Cilicia we must mention some mountain passes leading into or from it. These were, 1. Pyla Cilicia, leading from Cappadocia into Cilicia, and entering the latter country to the north of Mopsucrene. It was by this defile that the younger Cyrus, and subsequently Alexander the Great, penetrated into Cilicia. Here, likewise, Pescennius Niger, against whom Severus marched, took possession of the road, flanked on one side by precipitous rocks, and on the other by a deep abyss. 2. Pyla Syria, to the south of Maryandrus. 3. Pyla Amānica, to the east of Issus, and leading through the range of Mount Amanus. It was through this defile that Darius marched from northern Syria into Cilicia, at the very time that Alexander was passing into Syria in pursuit of him, through

the Pylæ Syriæ.

PAMPHYLIA.

I. Pamphylia was bounded on the east by Cilicia, on the north by Pisidia and Isauria, on the west by Lycia, and on the south by the Mare Pamphylium, or Gulf of Adalia or Satalia. It was separated from Pisidia by the range of Mount Taurus, and was drained by numerous streams flowing from the highlands of the latter country.

II. The main population of the country derived their origin probably from the same stock with the Cilicians. The Greek account, however, as given by Herodotus, made them to be the descendants of those who followed the fortunes of Calchas and Amphilochus after the fall of Troy, and as these Grecian emigrants were said to have been portions of various Hellenic tribes that had been engaged in the Trojan war, a plausible derivation was found in this circumstance for the appellation Pamphyli ($\Pi a\mu\phi\nu\lambda ol$), namely, from $\pi \tilde{a}\nu$ and $\phi \tilde{\nu}\lambda o\nu$, as indicating an assemblage of different nations or tribes. Several towns, however, on the coast, were undoubtedly of Grecian origin.

III. Pamphylia possesses but little interest in an historical point of view. It became subject, in turn, to Crœsus, the Persian monarchs, Alexander, the Ptolemies, Antiochus, and the Romans. It was entirely a maritime country, and its coast is

indented by a deep gulf, called anciently Mare Pamphylium, and now the Gulf of Adalia or Satalia. The eastern part of the coast is described by Beaufort as flat, sandy, and dreary; the western part, on the other hand, is surrounded by lofty mountains, which rise from the sea, and attain their greatest height in Mount Solyma, on the borders of Lycia. The interior of the country is said by Fellows to be very beautiful and picturesque. Pamphylia forms part of the modern Karamania, and is called by the Turks Teké-Ili.

IV. Among the rivers of Pamphylia we may mention, 1. The Melas, now the Menougat-Sou. 2. The Eurymedon, now the Kapri-Sou, celebrated for the double defeat, by land and sea, which the Persian fleet here sustained from Cimon. 3. The Cestrus, now the Ak-Sou. 4. The Catarrhactes, now Duden-Sou. This last was a large and impetuous stream, which poured its waters over a high rock near Termessus, with a very loud noise, and hence derived its Grecian name.

PLACES IN PAMPHYLIA.

1. Olbia, the first town on the western coast, and a strongly fortified place, according to Strabo. 2. Attalēa, to the east, and founded by Attalus Philadelphus of Pergamus. This city was visited by St. Paul on his route from Perge to Antioch. It is probably represented by the modern Adalia or Satalia. 3. Perge, to the east, and sixty stadia from the coast, on the River Cestrus. In its neighborhood was a celebrated temple of the Pergæan Diana, at which a sacred meeting (πανήγυρις) was held twice a year. Perge was twice visited by St. Paul. Its ruins are probably those at Eski Kelesi. 4. Aspendus, to the east, on the River Eurymedon, and about sixty stadia from its mouth. It was built for the greater part on a precipitous rock, and appears to have been a place of considerable importance in the time of Alexander, who punished the inhabitants severely for refusing to contribute fifty talents, and to supply him with the horses which they had been accustomed to rear for the King of Persia. Cicero speaks of it as an ancient and noble city in his time, and full of works of art. Its site is doubtful. 5. Side, to the southeast, near the mouth of the Melas, and founded by an Æolian colony from Cuma. The inhabitants, however, soon forgot the Greek language, and spoke a barbarous tongue peculiar to themselves. It was the principal harbor of the Cilician pirates. The Turks, according to Leake, ignorantly give the site of this place the name of Eski Adalia (Old Attalea).

LYCIA.

I. Lycia was bounded on the north by Phrygia, on the east by Pamphylia, on the west by Caria, and on the south by the Mediterranean. According to Herodotus, Lycia was originally called Milyas, and its inhabitants Solymi. These probably belonged to the Syrian stock. A colony subsequently came

from the island of Crete, under the guidance of Sarpedon, who had been driven out by his brother Minos. These colonists bore the name of Termila, and waged war upon the Solymi, driving them into the interior; and the new settlers retained the name of Termilæ until Lycus, son of Pandion, led a colony hither from Athens, and then, it is said, the country changed its name to Lycia, and the people were called Lycians ($\Lambda\acute{v}\kappa\iota\sigma$).

II. In the Homeric poems the country is always called Lycia, and the Solymi are mentioned as a warlike people, against whom Bellerophon was sent by the King of Lycia. In later times, the southern part of Phrygia, on the north of Lycia, was always called *Milyas*, but the people dwelling therein are never called *Solymi*, though the name still remained in that of Mount *Solyma*, on the northeastern coast. That Lycia was early colonized by Greeks is evident, not only from the account of Herodotus, but also from many Lycian traditions, as well as from the worship of Apollo, which was spread over the whole country. The chief temple of the god, however, was at *Patara*.

III. The interior of this country was entirely unknown to us until the visit of Mr. Fellows in 1838, and subsequently. This traveller has made many important discoveries. According to him, there are no mountains of any consequence in the interior, but the country is a fertile plain, surrounded by mountains, which rise in many places to a great height, and it is drained throughout its whole extent by the River Xanthus, now the *Etchen-Chai*. The coast is rocky and mountainous, but still, according to Strabo, contained a great many good harbors.

PLACES IN LYCIA.

1. Telmessus or Telmissus, near the western extremity of the coast, at the mouth of the River Glaucus, which empties into the Glaucus Sinus, or Gulf of Macri, sometimes called Telmessicus Sinus. Telmessus was famed for the skill of its augurs. The remains of this place are near the modern Meis. Beyond Telmessus the coast rises abruptly, forming the lofty and precipitous range of Anticragus, now Soumbourlu; after which we come to another mass of mountains, rising precipitously from the sea, and called anciently Mons Cragus. It is remarkable for its numerous detached summits, termed by the ancients Cragi Vertices, and now called by the Turks Yedi Bouroun, or "the Seven Capes." Cragus, according to Strabo, was the fabled abode of the Chimæra; but Pliny and others are in favor of Mount Chimæra, near the eastern coast, above Olympus. 2. Pināra, at the foot of Cragus, and a little to the west of the Xanthus. The Lycian hero Pandarus received divine honors here. The site, marked by numerous rock-tombs, a common feature in the antiquities of Lycia, is near the modern Minara. '3. Patāra, just below the mouth of the Xanthus, one of the

most celebrated cities of Lycia, and a commercial place of much importance. Here was a temple and oracle of Apollo, second only to that at Delphi. The oracles were delivered during the six winter months, as those at Delphi were during the summer ones. Hence Apollo was fabled to reside at Patara during the six months of winter. He received, moreover, from this place, the surname of Patareus. The ruins of Patara are near the village of Fornas. 4. Xanthus, the principal city of the Lycians, on the river of the same name, and some distance from its mouth. It was twice remarkable in history for the dauntless courage of its inhabitants, once against Harpagus, the general of Cyrus, and a second time, in a later age, against Brutus and the republican forces of Rome. On both these occasions they set fire to their city rather than surrender. The ruins are near the modern Koonik, and in the vicinity are some beautiful rocktombs. 5. Tlös, to the northeast, and one of the principal cities of Lycia. Its ruins are near the modern village of Doover, two and a half English miles to the east of the Xanthus.

6. Myra, to the east of Patara, an important commercial city. Its harbor was Andriace, now Andraki. Here St. Paul was transferred from the Adramyttian ship to that of Alexandrea, in which he suffered shipwreck. Myra still retains its name among the Greeks, but is called by the Turks Dembre, from the river in its vicinity. To the southeast was the Sacrum Promontorium (ή Ίερὰ ᾿Ακρα), regarded commonly as the commencement of the great chain of Taurus, though Strabo makes Taurus begin on the coast of Caria, opposite Rhodes. The modern name is Cape Kelidoni, from the islands which lie near it, the ancient Chelidoniæ Insulæ. 7. Olympus, to the northeast, on a mountain of the same name, and commanding a view of Lycia, Pamphylia, and Pisidia. It was an important and opulent place, but became eventually the haunt of Cilician pirates, and was taken by Paulus Servilius, the Roman commander. The site is called by the Turks Deliktash, or "the perforated rock," the only approach to it being through a natural aperture in the cliff. In the interior of the country was Mount Chimæra, regarded by some as the fabled residence of the monster of the same name, though other ancient authorities are in favor of Mount Cragus. 8. Phasēlis, to the north, of Dorian origin. It had three harbors, and was a very flourishing commercial city. Having become one of the principal resorts of the Cilician pirates, it was destroyed by Paulus Servilius. It was afterward rebuilt, but never recovered its former importance. The ruins are at Takova. A short distance inland are the Solymæan Mountains (τὰ Σόλυμα ὄρη). Beyond Phaselis the mountains press in upon the shore, and leave a very narrow passage along the strand, which at low water is practicable, but when storms prevail, and the sea is high, it is extremely dangerous, and travellers must then take a long circuit inland. This defile was called Climax, and derived great celebrity from Alexander's having led his army through it under circumstances of great difficulty and danger, when marching eastward after the conquest of Caria.

The student is referred to Fellows's "Asia Minor" and "Discoveries in Lycia," for interesting information respecting the antiquities of Lycia.

CARIA.

I. Caria was bounded on the north by Lydia, from which it was separated by the River Mæander, on the west and south by the Mediterranean, on the east by Lycia, and on the northeast by Phrygia. In extent it was the least considerable of

the divisions of Asia Minor; but from the number of towns and villages assigned to it by the geographers of antiquity, it would seem to have been very populous. It answers to the Turkish province of *Muntesha*.

II. The Carians were not considered to have been the aboriginal inhabitants of the country to which they communicated their name, but to have previously occupied the islands of the Ægean under the name of Lelĕges, until, having been reduced by Minos, king of Crete, they were removed by that monarch to the continent of Asia, where they still continued to be his vassals, and to serve him more especially in his maritime expeditions. The cause of their expulsion from the islands appears to have been their notorious proneness to piracy. They excelled, too, at this period, in the manufacture of arms, and the Greeks ascribed to them the invention of crests, and the devices and handles of shields. Before the Carians settled in this quarter of the peninsula, it is probable that the Phænicians occupied a portion of it.

III. The Carians appear to have offered little resistance to the Greek colonists who subsequently established themselves on their coasts. The Ionians first drove them from Miletus and Priene; and the Dorians next obtained a footing on their shores. The Rhodians also appropriated to themselves the southern coast, called, in consequence, Peræa Rhodiorum, from its lying over against their island. This tract extended from the borders of Lycia to the castle and mountain of Phænix on the Doridis Sinus, after which Doris commenced, and reached to the Bargylieticus or Iassicus Sinus on the north.

IV. When the Dorians arrived in Asia Minor they formed themselves into six independent states or small republics, which were confined within the bounds of as many cities. These cities were Cnidus and Halicarnassus, on the mainland; Cos, in the island of that name; and the three Rhodian towns of Lindus, Ialyssus, and Camirus. Other cities belonged also to the confederacy, but the inhabitants of these six alone, as true and genuine Dorians, formed the regular Doric league; and the members of this alliance met on the Triopian promontory to celebrate in public national festivals the rites of Apollo and Ceres. This confederation was called the Doric Hexapolis until Halicarnassus was excluded, when it took the name of

Pentapolis. The reason for the exclusion was, that a citizen of that place, who had gained a tripod as a prize, violated the regulation which required that the tripod should always be consecrated as an offering in the Triopian temple of Apollo, in order that he might carry it off to decorate his own house. Probably, too, the increasing predominance of the Carian element at Halicarnassus had some effect in producing the exclusion.

PLACES IN CARIA.

In Peraa Rhodiorum we have, 1. Dædăla, close upon Lycia, and on the Glaucus Sinus. It was said to have been called after Dædalus, who, being bitten by a snake on crossing the neighboring River Ninus, died and was buried here. Inland was the mountain range of Dædala, on the confines of Lycia. 2. Calynda, to the northwest, near the junction of the Axon with the Indus, now the Kaiguez. At Calynda was a grove sacred to Latona. The remains of this city were discovered by Fellows. 3. Caunus, supposed to be of Cretan origin, and famed for its figs. It had a harbor and roadstead. It was very unhealthy in the summer season. The site is now occupied by the small sea-port town of Kaiguez. Passing the River Calbis, now the Tavas, according to some, but more correctly the Dollomon-chai, we come to, 4. Physcus Portus, the harbor by which Ephesus communicated with Rhodes. 5. Phanix, a mountain and castle, marking the limit of Peraa Rhodiorum to the west.

Proceeding along the coast, we come to Cynossēma Promontorium, where Doris commences, and, doubling this, enter the Doridis Sinus, now the Gulf of Symi, so called from the island of Symi, the ancient Syme, lying off the promontory. We then come in order to, 1. Cnidus, at the extremity of a peninsula called Triopium, and sometimes the Carian Chersonese. The extreme point of this neck of land was called the Triopium Promontorium, now Cape Krio, and on it was the temple of the Triopian Apollo, where the members of the Doric league used to meet. Cnidus was a celebrated city, and the metropolis of the Asiatic Dorians. Venus, in particular, was worshipped here, and among other remarkable works of art which this place contained was the famous statue of that goddess by Praxiteles. The historian Ctesias and the mathematician Eudoxus were natives of this city. It is now a heap of ruins. On doubling the Triopian promontory we enter the Ceramicus Sinus, now the Gulf of Budrun. The ancient name is derived from the town of Ceramus, on the northern shore, now Keramo, the modern name from that of Halicarnassus. To the west of Ceramus we come to, 2. Halicarnassus, a celebrated city, founded by a colony of Træzenians, and the birth-place of Herodotus. It belonged originally to the Doric confederacy, but had been excluded for the reason already mentioned. It fell afterward under the sway of Lygdamis, one of its own citizens, who transmitted his authority to his daughter Artemisia, of whom Herodotus makes such honorable mention, and who took part in the expedition of Xerxes. Somewhat later we find it ruled by princes of Carian extraction, as, for instance, Mausolus and his sister and wife, the younger Artemisia. The monument erected by this princess to the memory of her husband, and called the Mausoleum, was one of the seven wonders of the world. This city was famous also for the siege which it stood, under Memnon, against Alexander the Great. The ruins are at the

modern Budrun. 3. Myndus, to the northwest, on the Sinus Bargylieticus or Iassicus, now the Gulf of Hassan (or, more correctly, Asyn) Kalessi. Athenœus praises the wine of this place as good for digestion. Leake identifies Myndus with Gumishlu, but Cramer is in favor of Mentesha. 4. Caryanda, to the east, the birth-place of Scylax the geographer. 5. Bargylia, to the northeast, giving one of its ancient names to the gulf. It was noted for a temple and statue of Diana Cindyas (so named from the adjacent village of Cindye). Whenever it rained or snowed, the image of the goddess was observed to be free from moisture. 6. Iassus, to the north, giving one of its ancient names to the gulf. The fisheries in its neighborhood are very abundant, and on these the Iassians chiefly depended for subsistence. The town was situate on an island close to the shore, and had a good harbor. The neighboring mountains supplied a beautiful kind of marble, used for ornamental purposes. The color was blood-red and livid white striped. The remains of Iassus are at Hassan (or Asyn) Kalessi. With Iassus Doris terminated on the north.

In the interior of Caria we have, 1. Euromus or Europus, to the east of Iassus, founded by Idrieus, son of Car, and a place of considerable importance. It included several adjacent towns within its territory, which were afterward taken by Mylasa, lying to the southeast of it. 2. Mylasa, one of the most considerable towns of Caria, and the residence of the Carian dynasty before Halicarnassus fell under their power. It was situate in a fertile plain, at the foot of a mountain containing veins of a beautiful white marble, a material which enabled the inhabitants to adorn their city most sumptuously with porticoes and temples. The site is now occupied by Melasso. 3. Labranda, to the north, and dependent on Mylasa. It was celebrated for two temples sacred to Jupiter Labrandenus (or Labradeus) and Stratius. The former of these titles was derived by some from the Carian term Labrys, "a hatchet," the statue of the god bearing this utensil. A paved road, called the Sacred Way, led to the other temple from Mylasa. This latter temple was held in great veneration by the Mylasians and the neighboring communities. 4. Stratonicea, to the southeast of Mylasa, founded by Antiochus Soter in honor of his queen Stratonice. The site is now marked by the village of Eski-hissar. 5. Alabanda, to the north of Labranda, and said to have been founded by the hero Alabandus, or else to have derived its name from an equestrian victory, ala, in the Carian tongue, signifying "a horse," and banda, "a victory." This place was famed for its quarries of dark-colored marble approaching to purple. It is now represented, according to Leake, by Arabi-hissar. 6. Antiochia ad Maandrum, to the northeast of Alabanda, and near the junction of the rivers Maander and Orsinus. It was founded by Antiochus, son of Seleucus. The country around was famed for its abundance of fruits of every kind, but especially of the fig called triphylla. The site corresponds to the modern Jeni-sher. 7. Aphrodisias, to the southeast, and in the time of Hierocles the metropolis of Caria. Its site corresponds to that of Gheira.

LYDIA.

I. The boundaries of Lydia differed at various times; but under the Roman empire it was bounded on the south by Caria, from which it was separated by the Mæander; on the north by Mysia, from which it was separated by the rivers Caïcus and Macistus, and the intervening range of Mount Tamnus; on the east by Phrygia, and on the west by the

Ægean. The coast was occupied by the Ionian colonies, and bore the general name of *Ionia*.

II. The origin of the Lydian people is uncertain. According to Herodotus, they were of the same stock with the Carians and Mysians. Homer does not appear to have known the name of "Lydia," but always calls the people Mæŏnes. According to most ancient writers, they were originally called Mæones, and obtained the name of Lydians from Lydus, the son of Atys, who is mentioned in tradition as the first king of the country.

III. According to Herodotus, three dynasties ruled in Lydia: the Atyādæ, from the earliest times to B.C. 1221; the Heraclidæ, from B.C. 1221 to 716; and the Mermnādæ, from B.C. 716 to 556. The first two of these are almost entirely fabulous. The monarchs of the last were engaged in almost uninterrupted wars with the Greek cities on the coast; but the empire steadily increased in wealth and power, until it attained its greatest prosperity under Cræsus. This empire, however, was overthrown by Cyrus (B.C. 556). After Alexander's conquests, Lydia, with the rest of western Asia, formed part of the empire of the Seleucidæ; and on the conquest of Antiochus by the Romans, B.C. 189, it was given to Eumenes, king of Pergamus. On the termination of the kingdom of Pergamus, B.C. 133, it came into the power of the Romans.

IV. The ancient Lydians appear to have enjoyed great commercial prosperity, and to have possessed abundance of the precious metals. They are said to have obtained large quantities of gold from the sands of the River Pactolus; but there is no proof that they ever carried on the operation of mining. Cræsus, king of Lydia, made himself famous by the rich presents which he sent to the different oracles of Greece. The fertility of Lydia, and the salubrity of the climate, are frequently mentioned by the ancient writers; and their accounts are confirmed by the reports of modern travellers.

V. The mountain ranges of Lydia are, 1. Sardēne, in the northwest, and connected with Tamnus, which last separates Lydia in part from Mysia. 2. Messögis, a branch of Taurus, and forming the northern boundary of the valley of the Mæander. 3. Tmolus, detaching itself from Messogis near the borders of Phrygia, running parallel to that chain through the centre of Lydia, and terminating on the western coast, opposite

the island of Chios. 4. Sipylus, a branch of Tmolus, stretching more to the northwest, toward the cities of Cuma and Phocæa. The rivers of Lydia are, 1. The Mæander, now the Minder, rising near Celænæ, in Phrygia, in the chain of Mons Aulocrene (p. 607). 2. The Caÿster, rising in the angle formed by the range of Messogis in the south and Tmolus in the north, and falling into the Ægean near Ephesus. Near its mouth it formed the Asia Palus, or Asian Marsh, much frequented by water-fowl. 3. The Hermus (p. 607). 4. The Caïcus, now the Bakir-chai, separating Lydia from Mysia. 5. The Pactolus and Hyllus or Phrygius, tributaries of the Hermus.

VI. Lydia answers now to the Turkish province of Saroukhan, and the northern part of that of Sighla. We will now mention the most important places in Lydia Proper, and will then give a sketch of Ionia.

PLACES IN LYDIA PROPER.

In the portion of Lydia lying between the Caicus and Hermus we may name, 1. Hiero-Casarea, where Diana Persica was worshipped, and whose rites are said to have been established there as early as the reign of Cyrus. 2. Apollonis, to the south, named after the wife of Attalus, and often mentioned by Cicero. Its site is probably marked by the hamlet of Bullene. 3. Thyatira, to the northeast, on the River Lycus, a branch of the Hyllus, and built by Seleucus Nicator. It was famous for the art of dyeing purple. Thyatira is one of the seven churches of the Apocalypse. It is now Ak-hissar. The plain to the south of Thyatira, watered by the Hyllus, was called Hyrcanius Campus, from a colony of Hyrcanians settled there by the Persians. 4. Julia Gordus, to the southeast, on the Hyllus, and surnamed Julia in compliment to Julius Cæsar, or Augustus. Its remains are at Ghiurdiz. To the southwest of this place was the Gygaa Palus, subsequently called Coloe Palus, and now Lake Mermere. It was a work of human art, and was a large basin excavated to receive the waters which inundated the neighboring plains. Near it were the graves or tumuli of the Lydian kings, from one of whom, Gyges, it received its earlier name. Among these mounds the most remarkable was that of Alyattes, the father of Crœsus, being of enormous dimensions. Hamilton makes the number of tumuli in this quarter to be upward of sixty, called by the Turks Bin Tepéh, or "the thousand hills;" and describes the mound of Alyattes as far exceeding them in size, and having a circumference of nearly half a mile. 5. Attalia, to the southeast, on the Hermus, and now Adala. 6. Silandus, to the northeast, an episcopal see of Lydia, now a small village named Selendi.

In Lydia, south of the Hermus, we may name, 1. Magnesia ad Sipylum, just below the Hermus, and near Mount Sipylus, by which it was distinguished from Magnesia ad Mæandrum, farther south. It was celebrated for the signal victory gained under its walls by Lucius Scipio, aided by the counsels of his brother Africanus, over the forces of Antiochus. In the reign of Tiberius it was nearly destroyed by an earthquake, which shook and overthrew several other cities in

Asia. It is now Manissa, and was at one time the residence of the Turkish sultans. Mount Sipylus, to the south, is celebrated in mythology as the residence of Tantalus, and the scene of the legend of Niobe. There was a city in early times, also named Sipylus, on the slope of the mountain, and here Tantalus is supposed to have dwelt, though his place of abode is more commonly referred by classical writers to Phrygia. This city is said to have been swallowed up by an earthquake, and plunged into a crater afterward filled by a lake. The lake was named Sale or Saloe. Mount Sipylus is now Sipuli-dag or Saboundji-dag. 2. Nymphæum, to the southeast, where the Byzantine emperors are said to have enjoyed the fine season, apart from the cares of public life. The site is now called Nymphi. Near this place rose Mons Mastusia, now Tartali, a part of the chain of Tmolus. 3. Sardes, to the northeast, the capital of Lydia before the Persian conquest, situate in a fertile plain at the foot of the northern slope of Tmolus. The River Pactolus flowed through it, and soon after joined the Hermus. Even after the overthrow of the Lydian empire by Cyrus it still continued to be the chief town of the Persian dominions in this part of Asia, and the residence of the satrap. The burning of this place by the Ionians and Athenians led to the war between Persia and Greece. Sardes is one of the seven churches of the Apocalypse. It is now little more than a village in the midst of extensive ruins, and is called Sart. Mount Tmolus is called by the Turks Bouz-dag.

4. Hypæpa, to the southwest, near the sources of the Cayster, and remarkable for the beauty of its females, a praise to which the Lydian women in general were entitled. The ruins are near the modern town of Birkhé. 5. Philadelphia, to the east, on the River Cogamus, at the foot of Tmolus. It was built by Attalus Philadelphus, king of Pergamus. This place suffered repeatedly by violent shocks of earthquakes, and became eventually almost deserted. It was one of the seven churches. The modern name is Allah-shehr, or "City of God." To the east and northeast was a district named Catacecaumene (Κατακεκαυμένη), or "Entirely burnt," from its volcanic appearance and character. The plains were covered with ashes, and the mountain rocks were of a black color, as if they had been subject to the action of fire. The vine, however, was cultivated here with great success. A full account of the geology of this tract is given by Hamilton. 6. Magnesia ad Mæandrum, to the southeast of Ephesus, and near the River Mæander. It was founded by a colony of Magnesians from Dotium in Thessaly, and became powerful enough to cope even with Ephesus. Its territory was remarkable for its fertility. The River Lethaus flowed close to the place, and in the vicinity was Mount Thorax. Hamilton has proved the site of this city to be at Inek-bazar, and not Guzel-hissar, as Pococke and Chandler supposed. 7. Tralles, to the southeast, one of the most opulent cities of Asia Minor in the time of Strabo. It was strongly fortified. The site is near Guzel-hissar. 8. Nysa, to the northeast, distinguished for its cultivation of literature. Its ruins are at Eski-hissar

IONIA.

I. Ionia, as already remarked, occupied the western shore of Lydia. It extended from the Sinus Cumæus, now Gulf of Tschanderli, on the north, to Mount Grius, and the Sinus Bargylieticus, on the south, a length of not more than one hundred miles in a straight line, but with a coast three times that

length, owing to the many sinuosities that marked it. Inland the Ionian territory did not extend above forty miles from the coast.

II. The Ionic migration from the Peloponnesus to Asia Minor took place in B.C. 1040. In truth, however, as we have already remarked (p. 469), it was not one single event, but there seem to have been many and various migrations of Ionians to this quarter. The settlers coming after the Æolians occupied the coast immediately below these, and gave it their name. They established colonies also in Chios and Samos, besides those on the main land. The cities on the main land, together with the two islands just named, formed the confederation of the twelve cities of Ionia. Smyrna, being seized by Colophonian exiles, was in course of time added to the confederation. The names of the thirteen Ionian cities, therefore, commencing on the north, were as follows: Phocæa, Smyrna, Clazoměnæ, Erythræ, Chios, Teos, Lebědus, Colophon, Ephěsus, Priene, Samos, Myus, and Miletus. Other colonies, however, from the original Ionian cities, were founded along the coast, such as Geræ, Myonesus, Clarus, &c.

III. The Ionian confederation appears to have been mainly united by a common religious worship, and the celebration of a periodical festival; and it seems that the deputies of the several states only met in times of great difficulty. The place of assembly was the *Panionium*, at the foot of Mount *Mycăle*, where a temple, built on neutral ground, was dedicated to Neptune, the national deity of the Ionians.

PLACES IN IONIA.

1. Phocæa, the most northern of the Ionian cities, founded by a colony from Phocis, under the guidance of two Athenian chiefs, but not included in the Ionian confederacy until it had consented to place at the head of its affairs two princes of the line of Codrus. From the excellence of its harbor, and the enterprising spirit of its inhabitants, it soon became a celebrated commercial city, and sent out many colonies, the most important of which was Massalia, in southern Gaul, now Marseilles. The Phocæans are known in history by the circumstance of their having abandoned their city, in order to avoid subjugation by Harpagus, the general of Cyrus, and their having sworn not to return until an ignited mass of iron which they cast into the sea should rise to the surface. One half, however, did return; the remainder migrated to Alalia, a Phocæan colony in Corsica, whence, after a few years, they removed to Velia or Elæa in Lower Italy. Phocæa still continued to exist under the Persian dominion, and also subsequently under the empire of the Seleucidæ and the Romans, but greatly reduced in population and commerce. It is now Fokia or Fouges. 2. Smyrna,

to the southeast, at the head waters of the Sinus Smyrnæus or Hermæus, now the Gulf of Smyrna, and on the little river Meles. According to Herodotus, it was originally an Æolian city, but, having given shelter to some Colophonian exiles, the latter took advantage of a festival, and made themselves masters of the place. It was then received into the Ionian confederacy. Smyrna was celebrated for its commerce, and is still the great mart of the Levant trade. It was also one of the cities which claimed to have been the birth-place of Homer, and the Smyrnæans showed a cave near the sources of the Meles where the bard was said to have composed his verses. From his having been supposed by them to have been born on the banks of the Meles, Homer was called by the Smyrnæans Melesigenes. This city is now called Ismir by the Turks, but retains among the Franks its ancient name. 3. Clazoměnæ, to the southwest, on the lower shore of the Sinus Smyrnæus, and the birth-place of Anaxagoras the philosopher. Its ruins are a little to the northeast of the modern Vourla. Passing along the coast, we come to the Apocremnus Promontorium, now Cape Esomeno, and then to the Melana Promontorium, now Cape Kara-bouroun, near which, according to Strabo, was a quarry where mill-stones were dug up. Bending around to the south, we come next to, 4. Erythræ, a city which obtained great celebrity from the sibyl, who is said to have delivered prophecies there. The site is still called Ritre. The island of Chios, to which we shall subsequently refer, lies opposite. It is now Scio.

Passing down the coast, and doubling the Argennum Promontorium, now Cape Bianco, we reach a high and rugged shore formed by Mount Corycus, and inhabited formerly by a wild and daring population, greatly addicted to piracy. The ridge is now called Mount Kourko, and also the Table Mountain. We then come to, 5. Teos, originally colonized by a party of Minyæ from Orchomenus in Bœotia, but which subsequently received a great accession of strength from Athens at the time of the Ionian migration. When Ionia was invaded by the armies of Cyrus, the Teians, in order to avoid his sway, abandoned their city, and retired to Abdera in Thrace. A small portion of the inhabitants, however, still remained, but the place never regained its former importance. Teos was the birth-place of Anacreon. The chief produce of its territory was wine, and Bacchus was the deity principally revered here. The site is now called Boudroun. 6. Lebědus, to the southeast, originally held by the Carians, who were expelled by an Ionian colony under Andræmon, son of Codrus. It was nearly destroyed by Lysimachus, in a later age, for the purpose of aggrandizing Ephesus; but it became a place of some note afterward as the general rendezvous of all the Ionian stage-players, who met here once a year, and celebrated games and sports in honor of Bacchus. The population was very much reduced in the Augustan age, as we learn from Strabo and Horace. The territory, however, was very fertile, and the mineral baths near the city were in considerable repute. The site of Lebedus is near some ruins called Ecclesia or Xingi.

7. Colŏphon, to the southeast, about two miles from the coast, and having a harbor called Notium, with which it was connected by means of long walls. The Colophonian cavalry were at one time very famous, and generally turned the scale on the side on which they fought; hence Κολοφῶνα ἐπιτιθέναι (Colophonem addere) became, according to Strabo, a proverb for putting an end to an affair; hence, too, in the early period of the art of printing, the account which the printer gave of the place and date of the edition, being the last thing printed at the end of the book, was called the Colophon. This city was one of those which claimed to be the birth-place of Homer; it did produce, however, many distinguished poets, among whom may be named Minnermus, Hermesianax,

Antimachus and Nicander. The resin, still known in pharmacy as the resina Colophonia, was obtained from this quarter. Lysimachus nearly ruined the place by drawing off the greater part of the population to Ephesus, and those who remained migrated soon after to Notium, which then took the name of New Colophon. Near Colophon flowed the little river Hales, noted for the coldness of its waters. 8. Clärus, in the vicinity of Colophon, and famed for its temple and oracle of Apollo. The priest who gave the responses first descended into a cave and drank of a sacred spring, and then revealed in verse to each of those who consulted the god the subject of his secret thoughts. This oracle foretold a speedy death to Germanicus. The remains of Clarus are near the modern village of Chille or Zille.

9. Ephësus, to the southeast, near the mouth of the Cayster, and on its southern bank. Its foundation was ascribed to the Amazons, and it was subsequently colonized by the Ionians under Androclus, son of Codrus. Ephesus was remarkable for the worship of Diana, who appears to have been the same with the great goddess of nature, and her rites were established here long before the Ionian migration. The first temple of the goddess was set on fire by a madman named Herostratus, and was entirely destroyed, with the exception of the outer columns. The new structure which arose in its place was remarkable for its splendor, and was accounted one of the wonders of the world. The architect was the celebrated Dinocrates. The city itself gradually increased with the celebrity and splendor of its fane, and to this Lysimachus also contributed by causing the inhabitants to remove from the old site, which was subject to inundations, to a better position; and he also increased the population at the expense of the neighboring cities. Ephesus was the birth-place of Heraclitus, the weeping philosopher, and of Apelles and Parrhasius, the painters. It is memorable in the writings and travels of St. Paul, and is the first of the churches mentioned in the Apocalypse. The ruins of this city are near the modern town of Aiasluck, a name corrupted from Agio-Tzeologos, the modern Greek epithet for St. John ("Αγιος Θεόλογος), the founder of the church here.

Passing down the coast, we come to the celebrated chain of Mount Mycale, opposite the island of Samos, at the foot of which was the Panionium, a temple and place of meeting for the members of the Ionian confederation. Here also the great victory was obtained by the Greek naval force, under the command of Leotychides, king of Sparta, against the Persian forces encamped near the shore, and which wrested the whole of Ionia for a time from the Persian dominion. The modern Turkish village of Tchangeli seems to mark the site of the ancient Panionium. Doubling the Trogilian promontory, now Cape S. Maria, and entering the Latmicus Sinus, we come to, 10. Priene, near the upper shore, with its two harbors, as mentioned by Scylax. When, however, Strabo wrote, the town was forty stadia from the coast, a change produced by the alluvial deposits of the Mæander. These same deposits have now effected a still greater change, for the Sinus Latmicus is now closed up by the slime brought down by this river, and exists only as an inland lake. Priene originally belonged to the Carians. It was the birth-place of Bias, one of the seven sages of Greece. The ruins are near the Turkish village of Samsoun. 11. Milētus, on the lower shore of the Sinus Latmicus, near its mouth. This city also belonged originally to the Carians, from whom it was wrested by the Ionian colonists. The admirable situation of Miletus, and the convenience of having four harbors, gave it, at an early period, a great preponderance in maritime affairs. Its commerce was most flourishing, and the number of its colonies exceeded that of any other city of antiquity. Miletus was the birth-place of Thales, Anax-

imander, and Anaximenes, the philosophers, and also of Cadmus and Hecatæus, two of the earliest historical writers of Greece. The Milesians, like the rest of the Ionians, were voluptuous and effeminate; they enjoyed, however, a high repute for their manufacture of couches and other articles of furniture, and their fine woollen cloths and richly-dyed carpets were especially esteemed. The site of this place is marked by a mean little settlement called Palat or Palatia, i. c., "the Palaces." 12. Latmus, to the southeast, at the head waters of the Sinus Latmicus, to which it gave name, and in the vicinity of Mount Latmus, the fabled seat of the adventures of Endymion. 13. Didymi, to the southwest of Miletus, the seat of the celebrated temple and oracle of Apollo Didymæus, and where the Branchidæ officiated. The temple was burned by the Persians after the battle of Mycale, and the Branchidæ accompanied them on their retreat, taking with them the sacred treasury. The Milesians, however, rebuilt the temple with the greatest splendor, as the remains of it at the present day abundantly testify. The promontory of Posidēum, now Cape Arbora, terminated Ionia to the south. Inland, however, we have to mention, 14. Myus, on the left bank of the Mæander, and about thirty stadia from its mouth. This was one of the three places granted by the King of Persia to Themistocles for his subsistence during his residence in Asia. The choking up of the Sinus Latmicus produced so great an abundance of gnats that the inhabitants of Myus were compelled to abandon their city and remove to Miletus. This will close our account of Ionia. The description of Chios and Samos will be given with that of the other islands, at the close of the article on Asia Minor.

MYSIA.

I. Mysia was bounded on the north by the Propontis, on the northwest by the Hellespont, on the west by the Eg@an, on the south by Lydia, on the east by Bithynia, from which it was separated by the Rhyndacus, and on the southeast by Phrygia.

II. The inhabitants, called Mysi (Mvooi), were of the same race as the Teucri, both being most probably of Thracian origin, and connected with the Mæsi who dwelt along the Ister or Danube. At the time of the settlement of the Æolic colonies on the shores of this country, a Mysian kingdom, named Teuthrania, had arisen on the banks of the Caïcus; it was not, however, of long duration. The Mysians lived in small tribes on their mountains or in valleys.

III. The range of Mount Temnus, of which Ida forms part, traversed this country in an oblique direction, from southeast to northwest, commencing on the borders of Lydia. From its southern and southwestern declivity flow the Caïcus, Mysius, Evenus, Simoïs, and Scamander; from its northeastern and northern declivity, the Macestus, Tarsius, Æsēpus, and Granicus.

IV. In considering this country, the most convenient division

will be into, first, the coast of the Propontis, from the headland and town of Priāpus on the west, where the Hellespont commences, to the River Rhyndācus on the east, where Mysia ends; secondly, the Hellespontine shore, from Priapus to the promontory of Sigæum, where the strait terminates; thirdly, Troas; fourthly, the Æolic colonies; and, lastly, the interior of Mysia.

PLACES ON THE SHORE OF THE PROPONTIS.

1. Priāpus, a headland and city at the opening of the Proportis, now Karaboa. It was founded by a colony from Miletus, and was named after the god Priapus. The territory produced excellent wine. 2. Harpagium, a short distance below, where Ganymede was fabled to have been snatched away by the eagle of Jove. Near this place the River Granicus empties into the sea, on the banks of which river Alexander gained his first victory over the Persians. The Granicus is now the Kodsha-Su. Cramer less correctly makes it the Satal-Dere. 3. Zelēa, to the southeast, on the Æsēpus, eighty stadia from its mouth. This was the city of Pandarus, one of the allies of Priam. It was the head-quarters of the Persian army prior to the battle of the Granicus. The site is now called Bigah, and the Palus Aphnitis, in its vicinity, is now the Lake of Bigah. The River Æsepus, according to Leake, is the Boklu; but according to Gosselin, the Satal-Dere. 4. Memnonis tumulus, near the mouth of the Æsepus, the tomb of Memnon, the son of Aurora, and close to it a small town of the same name. 5. Cyzicus, the largest and most celebrated city on the shores of the Propontis, and a colony of Miletus. It was famed for its commerce, opulence, the splendor of its public edifices, and the wisdom of its political institutions. It possessed also extensive arsenals and granaries, and two harbors, one called Chytus, the other Panormus, which together could contain two hundred galleys. The latter still retains the name of Panormo. Cyzicus was at first situate on the neck of a peninsula; this peninsula was subsequently converted into an island, and this island, again, was subsequently connected with the main land by Alexander through two bridges. Now, however, the spot has reverted to its ancient peninsular form. Cyzicus was famed for the beauty of its golden staters, which, according to Demosthenes, were worth each twenty-eight Attic drachmæ. It continued to be a very flourishing city under the Roman and Byzantine emperors. The ruins are near the modern town of Erdek, which itself answers to the ancient Artace. 6. Placia, to the east, named by Herodotus, together with Scylace, farther on, among the few settlements belonging to the ancient race of the Pelasgi, which existed in his time. The inhabitants of these towns spoke a language which was entirely different from that of the neighboring people. Further on we come to the mouth of the Rhyndacus. This river, now the Edrenos-Su, rises in Phrygia Epictetus, near Azani, the modern Tjaudere, and after receiving the Macestus, now Mickalick, and other streams, and separating Bithynia from Mysia, falls into the sea opposite the little island of Besbicus, now Kalolimno.

PLACES ON THE HELLESPONTINE SHORE.

The Hellespontus, now the Dardanelles, took its name from Helle, daughter of Athamas, who was drowned in it on her passage to Colchis. Its modern name is supposed to come from the ancient Dardania, in its vicinity. The strait

properly begins a little to the southeast of the headland of Priapus, now Cape Karaboa, and terminates with the promontory of Sigæum, now Cape Jenischer. Some ancient writers, however, made the Hellespont commence at Callipolis, or where are now the straits of Gallipoli. The breadth of the Hellespont is unequal, but where least, not more than three quarters of a mile across. On the Hellespontine shore we may name the following places:

1. Linum, to the west of Priapus, and well known for a species of shell-fish caught there. 2. Pityēa, near it, so called from the number of pine-trees (πίτυς, "a pine-tree") which grew in its vicinity. 3. Parium, to the west, a place of importance under the kings of Pergamus, and a Roman colony in the time of Augustus. It had a secure and spacious harbor. 4. Lampsacus, to the southwest, one of the most celebrated of the Hellespontine cities. It was known at first by the name of Pityusa, but afterward received colonies from Phocæa and Miletus, and changed its appellation. The adjacent territory was very productive in excellent wine, and Priapus was worshipped by the people of Lampsacus with peculiar honors. Hence the morals of the place became very corrupt, and Alexander, it is said, determined in consequence to destroy it; but it was saved by the artifice of Anaximenes the orator, a native of the city, who, when Alexander declared with an oath that he would not grant his request, whatever it might be (the monarch suspecting that he intended to ask him to save the place), entreated him to destroy it. Lampsacus produced several distinguished literary men and philosophers, and, among them, Charon the historian and Metrodorus the Epicurean. The ancient site is near the modern town of Lamsaki. 5. Percote, to the southwest, on the Practius, now the river of Bergaz. This was one of the towns given to Themistocles by the King of Persia. 6. Arisbe, to the southwest, where Alexander stationed his army, immediately after crossing the Hellespont at Abydos. 7. Abydos, to the west, a rich and flourishing place, occupied after the Trojan war by some Thracians, who were driven out by a Milesian colony. Here Xerxes, seated on an eminence, surveyed his immense land and naval forces; and here, in the narrowest part of the strait, where the breadth did not exceed seven stadia, he constructed his bridge of vessels for the transportation of his army into Europe. Sestos stood farther to the north, the distance between it and Abydos being not less than thirty stadia. Abydos has also derived some celebrity from the romantic story of Hero and Leander. The point of land on which Abydos stood is now called Cape Nagara. But few traces of the ancient city remain, the materials having been carried off by the Turks to assist in building the Sultanie Kalessi, or Old Castle of Asia, three miles to the south.

PLACES IN TROAS.

I. The territory of Troas, in western Mysia, was bounded on the north by the River Rhodius, and a part of the chain of Ida; on the east by another portion of the same chain; on the south by the Sinus Adramyttenus, now the Gulf of Adramiti; and on the west by the Egæan. The northern part included the district of Dardania; the western side extended from the Sigæan promontory on the north, to the promontory of Lectum, now Cape Baba on the south.

II. The whole of the Troad is intersected by the branches of Mount Ida, now Kas-dagh, which, on account of the number of projections thrown out from the main ridge, was likened by the ancients to the insect named centipede. Two of its summits, which bore special appellations, were Cotylus and Gargara.

III. The inhabitants of the Troad were, most probably, of Thracian origin.

At the time, however, of the Trojan war, they had reached a higher state of prosperity and civilization than their opponents the Achæi. The first monarch in Troas is said to have been Teucer, from whom the Trojans are also called Teucri. In the reign of this king Troy was not yet built. Dardanus, probably a Pelasgic chief, came from the island of Samothrace to Troas, received the daughter of Teucer in marriage, together with the cession of part of his kingdom, founded the city of Dardanus, and called the adjacent region Dardania. Dardanus became the father of two sons, Ilus and Erichthonius. The former of these died without issue; the latter, who succeeded him, became the father of Tros, from whom the names Troas and Troja are derived. Tros had three sons, one of whom, Ilus, founded the city of Ilium or Troy, which became the capital of the country of Troas. In the reign of his successor, Laomedon, the city was said to have been fortified with walls by the assistance of Neptune and Apollo. Soon after this, Troy was taken by Hercules, but was restored to Priam, the son of Laomedon, who reigned for a long time in peace and prosperity, until his kingdom was attacked by the united forces of the Greeks, in consequence of the conduct of his son Paris. After a siege of nine years the Greeks took and destroyed the city. We will now mention some of the principal places in the Troad.

1. Dardanus, about seventy stadia from Abydos, and near the Promontorium Dardanium, now Cape Kepoburun. Though of great antiquity, it must not be confounded with the ancient city of the same name founded by Dardanus, which was farther inland, and at the foot of Mount Ida. By whom the second Dardanus was founded is uncertain. The place existed, however, in the time of Herodotus, who mentions its capture by the Persians in the reign of Darius. It was the capital of Dardania, from which the modern name of the Hellespont (Dardanelles) is derived. 2. Rhatēum, farther to the southwest, on a promontory of the same name. Ajax was buried on this promontory, and the tumulus, anciently called *Eanteum*, still exists. The Turkish name of the place where this tomb stands is Intepé, and the village of It-Ghelmes represents Rhæteum. Between the promontory of Rhæteum and that of Sigæum, the Grecian naval camp was placed at the siege of Troy. 3. Gergis, nearly due east of Dardanus, and a place of very great antiquity. It was of great strength, having an acropolis and very lofty walls. Here Apollo Gergithius was worshipped, and here also the Erythrean sibyl is said to have been born. 4. Palascepsis, some distance to the southeast, and so called for distinction' sake from the more recent town of Scepsis to the northeast. It was said to have been the capital of Æneas's dominions. 5. Scepsis, memorable as the place where the original writings of Aristotle were discovered. It seems, according to the common story, that Neleus of Scepsis, a disciple of Aristotle and intimate friend of Theophrastus, having been presented by the latter with his own MSS., as well as those which he had inherited from their common master, brought them from Greece to his native town. On his death they fell into the hands of illiterate relations of his, who at first allowed them to remain in a neglected state, and afterward buried them in a damp place, in order to keep them from Eumenes of Pergamus, whose subjects they were, and who was busily employed in adding to his recently-established library. They were afterward dug up, very much injured by damp and worms, and sold to Apellicon of Teos, whose library was afterward seized by Sylla on the capture of Athens, and the MSS. in question were conveyed to Rome. Stahr, however, maintains that this story is true only of certain copies of the writings of Aristotle. The site of Scepsis is still called Eskiupchi.

6. Troja, called also Ilium, the capital of Troas, and which appears from Homer to have stood in the immediate vicinity of the sources of the Scamander, on a rising ground between that river and the Simois. The site of this celebrated city is now generally agreed to be near the modern village of Bunar-Bashi. The citadel of Troy was called Pergamus. The city, according to the most correct opinion, was never rebuilt after its destruction by the Greeks, and the town of Novum Ilium, to be mentioned presently, must not be confounded with it. The River Scamander, called also Xanthus, probably from the yellow color of its waters, rose from some hot and cold springs near Troy. It is now the River of Bunar-Bashi. The Simois, on the other hand, rose in Mount Ida, near Gargarus, to the east of Troy, and was a much larger and more impetuous stream. It is now the Mendere-Su. Both rivers united before entering the sea.

- 7. Novum Ilium, to the northwest of Troja, and nearer the sea. It appears to have arisen not long after the Æolian migration, and, in order to gain celebrity for it, the inhabitants boldly affirmed that it stood on the site of ancient Troy. This was the city which Xerxes, and subsequently Alexander, visited, and in the citadel of which they both offered up sacrifices, thinking that they had seen the famous city of Priam. It was afterward fortified by Lysimachus, and its population increased at the expense of some of the neighboring towns. It experienced also the favor and protection of the kings of Pergamus, and after them of the Romans. According to Leake, its site is on a hill to the eastward of the villages of Kium-Kiui and Kalafatli, about five miles to the southeast of the lower castle of the Dardanelles. 8. Sigaum, a town and promontory to the northwest. The town was founded by a colony from Mytilene in Lesbos, and was a few years afterward seized by the Athenians, which gave rise to a war between the two states. This contest was rendered memorable by the prowess of Pittacus, who commanded the Mytileneans, and the cowardice of the poet Alcæus, who left his shield on the field of battle. The town of Sigæum no longer existed in Strabo's time, having been destroyed by the inhabitants of Novum Ilium. The promontory of Sigæum, now Jenischer, was celebrated as the spot where the ashes of Achilles, Patroclus, and Antilochus were interred, and three mounds at the present day are supposed to indicate the three tombs.
- 9. Alexandrea Troas, to the south, on the coast, founded by Antigonus, and first called from him Antigonea, and afterward called Alexandrea Troas by Lysimachus, in honor of Alexander. Under the Romans it attained to its height of prosperity, and became one of the most flourishing of their Asiatic colonies. In the Acts of the Apostles it is simply called Troas, and it was from this port that St. Paul and St. Luke set sail for Macedonia. Both Julius Cæsar and Constantine thought of establishing the seat of empire here. The site is now called Eski Stamboul, i. e., "the Old City," and numerous ruins attest its former magnificence. 10. Chrysa, a little to the south, surnamed Dia, and celebrated for the worship of Apollo Smintheus. The temple itself was called Sminthium. 11. Halesium, to the south, on the coast, and deriving its name from the salt springs in the vicinity. The salt works themselves were at Tragasa. Leaving this place, and doubling the promontory of Lectum, now Cape Baba, we enter the Sinus Adramyttenus, now Gulf of Adramiti, taking its name from Adramyttium, now Adramiti, at its head. On the northern shore of this gulf we have, 12. Assus, a Lesbian colony, and the birth-place of Cleanthes, the Stoic, and the successor of Zeno. Aristotle also resided here some time, having married the niece of Hermias, tyrant of the place. The wheat of Assus was reserved for the table of the Persian kings. The Assian stone, used for coffins, and said to consume the bodies of the dead, was found in this vicinity. The site of Assus

is now called $Beriam\ Kalesi$. 13. $Garg\check{a}ra$, to the east, another Eolian colony, taking its name from Gargarus, the celebrated summit of Ida. The country around was remarkable for its fertility. 14. Antandrus, to the east, at the foot of Mount Alexandra, one of the summits of Ida, and so called, it is said, from the judgment of Paris or Alexander, which took place upon this mountain. Antandrus is now Antandro. 15. Cilla, to the east, where Apollo was particularly worshipped. 16. $Adramytt\bar{u}um$, at the head of the gulf, with a harbor and winter station for ships. It became at an early period a wealthy and flourishing city, and is now Adramiti. In the interior of Troas we may notice, 17. Thebe, to the north of the preceding, surnamed Hypoplacia from being situate at the foot of Mount $Placus\ (\dot{v}\pi\dot{o}\ \Pi\lambda\dot{a}\kappa\varphi)$. It was the city of Eetion, father of Andromache, and was sacked by Achilles

ÆŏLIS.

I. The Æolic colonies in Asia Minor owed their origin to what is termed the Æolic migration, which took place from Greece on the invasion of the Dorians and Heraclidæ, B.C. 1124. The new settlements occupied by them on the main land were called Æolis. Besides these, however, the Æolians also formed insular settlements in Tenedos, Lesbos, and the group of islands called Hecatonnēsi, between Lesbos and the continent.

II. Æolis may be divided into Old and New. Old Æolis consisted of the twelve Æolian cities named Cyme, Temnus, Ægæ, Neon-Teichos, Larissa, Myrīna, Grynēum, Argivessa, Pitāne, Atarneus, Canæ, and Smyrna. The last mentioned of these, as we have already remarked, became at a subsequent period a member of the Ionian confederacy.

III. On the other hand, we may give the name of New Æolis to all the other Æolic cities, from below Adramyttium to the quarter where Old Æolis begins. Sometimes, however, the term Æolis is employed in a very general sense, to denote all the Æolic settlements on the western and northwestern coasts of Asia Minor, and then includes both Old and New Æolis, together with the coast as far as the Propontis.

PLACES IN ÆOLIS.

I. In New Eolis we have, 1. Coryphas, founded by the Mytilenæans. 2. Cisthène, just below, a flourishing town and port, but deserted in the time of Strabo. 3. Peparène, to the southeast, subsequently called Theodosiopolis, having a copper mine in its vicinity, and famous also for its wine. The promontory of Pyrrha, closing the Sinus Adramyttenus to the south, is now Cape S. Nicolo. On it was a temple of Venus. The Hecatonnesi, in its vicinity, are now called Musconisi, and derive their modern name from the town of Musco, corresponding to the ancient Pardoselene, an Æolian town in the largest one of the group. 4. Carène, to the west of Peparene, and now probably Chirin-Keui.

II. In Old Eolis we may mention, 1. Atarneus, a place of some importance, and having a rich and productive territory. It was for some time the residence of Hermias, tyrant of Assus. The ruins are near the village of Dikheli. 2. Cana, to the south, a colony of Locrians. 3. Pitane, to the southeast, a city of some note, having two harbors, and near the mouth of the Evenus, now the Kozak. It was the birth-place of Arcesilas, the founder of the Middle Academy. The bricks made here were so light as to float, it is said, in water. . The site of the place is now called Tchandeli. The promontory of Cana, to the west, is now Cape Colonni. 4. Pergamus or Pergamum, to the northeast, in a plain watered by the two small rivers Selinus and Cetius, both emptying into the Caïcus. It was at first a fortress of considerable strength, situate on the top of a conical hill, and when the city began to be formed around the base of the hill, the fortress served as a citadel. Pergamus became subsequently the capital of a flourishing kingdom of the same name, much enlarged by the Romans. It was famous also for its library, founded by Eumenes II., and which consisted of not less than two hundred thousand volumes. This noble collection was afterward given by Antony to Cleopatra, who transported it to Alexandrea, where it formed part of the splendid library in the latter city. It was from their being first used for writing in this library that parchment skins were called Pergamena charta, whence "pergamen" or parchment. Eumenes was compelled to employ parchment for books, because Ptolemy, king of Egypt, had forbidden the exportation of papyrus, in order to check the growth of the Pergamenian library, if possible, and prevent it from rivalling his own. Pergamus is one of the seven churches of the Apocalypse. The modern town retains the name of Bergamah or Bergma.

5. Elæa, the port and naval arsenal of Pergamus, giving the name of Eleaticus to the bay on which it stood, but which was more commonly called the Sinus Cumæus, now the Gulf of Tchandeli. 6. Grynēum or Grynēa, to the south, on the coast, and celebrated for the worship of Apollo, who hence obtained the surname of Grynæus. The temple of the god was remarkable for its size, and the beauty of the white marble of which it was built. The site of this place is now called Glisselik. 7. Myrīna, a short distance to the east, called, subsequently, under the Roman sway, Sebastopolis, in honor of Tiberius, who had granted it a remission of imposts on account of the damage it had sustained from an earthquake. 8. Cyme, the most considerable of the twelve Æolian cities, situate to the southeast, and surnamed Phriconis, because its first founders had settled for some time around Mount Phricium in Locris, previous to crossing over into Asia. Cyme was one of the many cities which claimed to be the birth-place of Homer. It could claim, however, on surer grounds, the historian Ephorus as a native. In general, however, the Cymeans were taxed with stupidity and slowness of apprehension. It suffered severely from an earthquake in the reign of . Tiberius, in common with several other cities of Asia. Its ruins are near the Turkish village of Sanderli. 9. Larissa, to the southeast, surnamed Phriconis like Cyme, and for the same reason. It was, as its name imports, originally a Pelasgic settlement prior to the arrival of the Æolians. 10. Neon-Teichos, between Larissa and Cyme, founded by the Æolians as a temporary fortress on their first arrival in the country from Locris. It afterward became one of the leading cities of Æolis. The ruins are to be sought on the right bank of the Hermus, above Giuzel-Hissar. 11. Temnus, to the southeast, on the lower bank of the Hermus probably, and in a commanding situation overlooking the plains of Cyme, Phocæa, and Smyrna. The village of Menimen, to the north of Smyrna, is supposed to mark its site. 12. Ægæ, to the north of Temnus. 13. Ægiroessa, mentioned by Herodotus as one of the twelve Æolian cities, and probably the same as Attalia Agroira, assigned by Stephanus to Lydia, but by Pliny to Æolis.

BITHYNIA.

I. Bithynia was bounded on the north by the Euxine, on the southeast and south by Phrygia, on the west by the Thracian Bosporus, the Propontis, and Mysia, and on the east by Paphlagonia, from which it was separated by the River Parthenius. If, however, we exclude, as some do, the Mariandyni from Bithynia, the eastern boundary will then be formed by the River Sangarius.

II. Bithynia had the advantage of an extensive line of seacoast, indented by two deep bays, the Sinus Cianus, now Gulf of Kio, and the Sinus Olbianus or Astacenus, now Gulf of Isnikmid. The ancient writers speak of the country as a very fertile one, though a great part of it was mountainous. The mountains themselves, however, were covered with valuable ship timber. The main group is that of Olympus, occupying the whole southern part of the country, and extending from east to west. The western extremity of the range was called the Mysian Olympus; the eastern, the Bithynian Olympus.

III. The earliest inhabitants of Bithynia were called Bebryces. They were afterward conquered or displaced by the Thyni and Bithyni, cognate tribes of Thracian origin, who came from the European side of the Propontis. These last were conquered in their turn by Cræsus, and on his overthrow became subject to the Persian empire. Bithynia was taken from the Persians by Alexander, but his general Calantus was defeated by Bas, a native prince, who founded an independent kingdom, which continued until 74 B.C., when Nicomedes III. left it by his will to the Romans. As a Roman province, Bithynia is well known to us through the letters of the younger Pliny, who was placed over it as governor by the Emperor Trajan.

IV. The chief rivers of Bithynia are, 1. The Rhyndăcus, separating it from Mysia. 2. The Sangărius, now Sakaria.

3. The Parthēnius, now Bartan. Modern travellers describe the country as beautiful and romantic, abounding in vines and forests, and particularly fertile near Brousa, the ancient Prusias.

PLACES IN BITHYNIA.

1. Dascylium, near the mouth of the Rhyndacus, the residence of the Persian satrap of Mysia and Phrygia, and from which the satrapy itself was called the Dascylian. Near it was the Palus Dascylitis, formed by the River Odrysses or Horisius, a branch of the Rhyndacus, and now the Niloufer or Oufersu. The country adjacent to the site of Dascylium is still called Diaskilo. 2. Myrlēa, to the east, a colony of the Colophonians, and a flourishing city until taken and destroyed by Philip the last of Macedon. It was rebuilt, however, by Prusias, king of Bithynia, who called it Apamea, after his queen. The ruins are near the site now called Modania. 3. Cius, to the northeast, at the head of, and giving name to the Sinus Cianus, now Gulf of Kio. It was a colony of the Milesians, and advantageously placed at the mouth of the River Ascanius, which discharged into the Propontis the waters of the Lake Ascanius, and being navigable, rendered Cius the emporium of a large tract of surrounding country, and many inland towns of Bithynia and Phrygia. It served also as the port of Nicaa. Cius was destroyed by Philip the last of Macedon, but rebuilt by Prusias, who gave it the name of Prusias ad Mare (πρὸς ψάλασσαν). The site is still called Kio. In the vicinity of Cius was Mount Arganthonius, whence flowed the little River Hylas, where the youth of that name was fabled to have been carried away by the Naiads. This mountain range ends in the promontory of Posidium, now Cape Bozburun. 4. Prusa ad Olympum ($\dot{\epsilon}\pi\dot{\iota}$ $\tau\tilde{\varphi}$ 'O $\lambda\dot{\iota}\mu\pi\varphi$), to the south of Cius, an important city, and so called from being situate at the foot of Mount Olympus, or the Mysian part of the chain. It was built, according to one account, by Prusias I., at the suggestion of Hannibal, when residing at the court of that monarch. Dio Chrysostom was born here. The modern name is Brousa, and it is still one of the most flourishing cities of Asia Minor. Brousa was the capital of the Ottoman empire prior to the capture of Constantinople. The Mysian Olympus is now called Toumandji Dagh; the general name for the whole range is Keschisch Dag. The appellation of "Mysian" is a misnomer, since the highest part of this branch of the chain is in Bithynia. 5. Hadriani, to the southwest, near the Rhyndacus, and the native place of Aristides the rhetorician. It is now Edrenos. 6. Nicæa, on the eastern shore of the Lake of Ascanius, and the capital of Bithynia. It was built by Antigonus, son of Philip, who called it Antigonia; but it subsequently received the name of Nicæa from Lysimachus, in honor of his wife, daughter of Antipater. It stood in an extensive plain, was built in the form of a square, and the streets were drawn at right angles to each other, so that from a monument near the gymnasium it was possible to see the four gates. It was the birth-place of Hipparchus the astronomer, and of Dio Cassius. Nicæa is celebrated in the history of the Church for the council held there against the Arian heresy, A.D. 325. The creed drawn up on this occasion is called the Nicene. This place was often taken and retaken during the wars between the Byzantine emperors and the Turks. It is now dwindled to an insignificant town called Isnik. The waters of the Lake Ascanius were so impregnated with natron that garments dipped in them were cleansed without any farther trouble.

7. Astacus, to the northeast, on the Sinus Olbianus or Astacenus. It was originally a colony of Megarians, but, having been strengthened by a colony from Athens, it received the name of Olbia, or "the Happy." It was destroyed by Lysimachus, but the inhabitants were transferred by Nicomedes to his new city of Nicomedia. 8. Nicomedia, at the head of the gulf, founded by Nicomedes I.

of Bithynia, and the chief residence of the Bithynian kings, an honor, however, subsequently divided with Niewa. It increased greatly under the Romans, and became the great thoroughfare from Byzantium to the upper part of Asia. It was often the residence of the Roman emperors when carrying on war against the Parthians or Persians. Constantine the Great breathed his last at his villa near this city. Arrian, the historian of Alexander, was born here. It is now called Isnikmid, or Ismid, and is still a place of importance. 9. Libyssa, to the west, on the northern shore of the gulf, and celebrated as the spot where Hannibal ended his days, and where his remains were interred. Plutarch calls it a small village. Some writers have identified it with the modern Ghebse, but Leake more correctly places it at Malsum, a few miles to the south of Ghebse. 10. Calchēdon, less correctly written Chalcēdon, to the northwest, and lying opposite to Constantinople. It was founded seventeen years earlier than this latter city, by the Megarians, who were jeered as blind men (though by no means justly, considering the time when the place was founded) for having overlooked the far superior site of Byzantium. It was, nevertheless, well situated for trade, and the surrounding country was remarkable for its fertility, so that this soon became a very flourishing place. It contained many beautiful buildings and monuments. Under the first Christian emperors it was made the capital of the ancient province of Bithynia, which now assumed the name of Pontica Prima. Here also the celebrated council was held, A.D. 451, against the Eutychian heresy. The site of Calchedon is now occupied by the village of Kadi-Keui, or "the Judge's Village." Travellers were ferried across to Byzantium from the northern headland called Bous or Damalis, the first name being derived from Io, who swam across the strait at this place, and the latter from Damalis, the wife of the Athenian general Chares. 11. Chrysopŏlis, a little to the northwest, and having a wide and beautiful harbor. It is now Scutari. More to the north, and near to the opening of the Bosporus, was the temple of Jupiter, surnamed Urius (Ουριος), or the "Dispenser of favoring winds."

Passing into the Euxine, and proceeding in an eastern direction along the northern coast of Bithynia, we come to, 1. Calpe, a harbor, with fine water, mentioned by Xenophon, who halted there some time with his fellow-soldiers. The soil of the adjacent country was extremely fertile, and the surrounding hills afforded fine naval timber. There was also a promontory here called Calpe. The modern name of both port and promontory is Kirpeh. 2. Thynias, a small island, having a port, and lying close to the land. It was afterward called Apollonias, from Apollo's being worshipped there. It is mentioned in the voyage of the Argonauts, and is now Kefken. 3. Prusa ad Hypium, situate a little distance inland, on the River Hypius, now the Mitan. It was founded by King Prusias, and was named from its situation, for distinction' sake from Prusias on the Sinus Cianus. Its site is near the modern Uskub. The country along this part of the coast was occupied by the Mariandyni, a people of uncertain origin, but who, differing neither in language nor in customs materially from the Bithyni, may justly be considered as part of the same great Thracian stock. 4. Heraclea Pontica, founded by the Megarians, in the territory of the Mariandyni, a portion of whom, near the city, they brought into subjection, and treated as helots. It was called Pontica, or in Ponto, for distinction' sake from other cities named Heraclea, and scattered over the ancient world. It became a very flourishing and powerful commercial city, and acquired possession of all the coast from the Sangarius to the Parthenius. Heraclea attained its greatest prosperity under a tyrant named Dionysius, who proved an excellent ruler. The Heracleots, after remaining eighty-four years under kingly authority, passed successively

under the dominion of Mithradates and Rome. It is now a small place, named *Erekli*. Near Heraclea, on a peninsula termed the Acherusian, was a celebrated cave, where Hercules was said to have dragged Cerberus to the light of day.

In the interior of Bithynia we may name, 1. Bithynium, near the Sangarius, and in a district named Salone, celebrated for its excellent pastures, and a cheese much esteemed at Rome. It changed its name subsequently to Claudiopolis, and increased greatly under Hadrian, being the birth-place of his favorite Antinous. Under Theodosius I. it became the capital of the new province of Honorias. It now probably answers to the town of Gheivah. 2. Cratia, to the southeast, called also Flaviopölis, flourished under the emperors of the Flavian line. Its site is near the modern Tereboli. 3. Dusis pros Olumpon, to the northeast. Its site is probably near the village of Dustché. 4. Hadrianopolis, to the east, now Boli. 5. Dadastana, some distance to the south of Cratia. Here the Emperor Jovian died on his return from Syria to Constantinople. 6. Gordium, afterward Juliopolis, to the northeast, on the confines of Galatia, and near the River Sangarius. It was the residence of the ancient Phrygian kings Gordius and Midas, and in its citadel, which had been the palace of Gordius, was preserved the famous knot which Alexander cut. It was a place of much traffic, from its central situation, being nearly equidistant from the Hellespont, the Euxine, and the Sea of Cilicia. It continued to flourish, under the name of Juliopolis, from the reign of Augustus for many centuries.

PAPHLAGONIA.

I. Paphlagonia is bounded on the north by the Euxine, on the south by Galatia, on the east by Pontus, and on the west by Bithynia. It was separated from Bithynia by the River Parthenius, and from Pontus by the River Halys. Paphlagonia is described by Xenophon as a country having very beautiful plains and very high mountains. It is traversed by two chains of mountains. The higher and more southerly of these chains is called Olgassys by Ptolemy, now Ulgaz Dagh, and is a continuation of the great mountain chain which extends from the Hellespont to Armenia, and which was known to the ancients under the names of Ida in Mysia, and Olympus in Bithynia.

II. The chief rivers are, 1. The Parthenius, already mentioned. 2. The Amnias, now Kara Su, a tributary of the Halys; and, 3. The Halys, now Kizil Ermak. The Halys formed the eastern boundary of the empire of Cræsus.

III. This rough country had but few roads; in different parts the soil varied in its degrees of fertility; in the north, but particularly about Sinope, the land was fruitful, especially in oil; the interior produced abundance of wood, red ochre, orpiment, &c., of which the grand mart was at Sinope. Homer extols the mules of Paphlagonia.

IV. The Paphlagonians were a people of Syrian race, and came to the assistance of the Trojans under the command of Pylæmenes. Homer says they came from the country of the Heněti, which means, most probably, that the Heneti themselves were a Paphlagonian people, who followed Pylæmenes to Troy. These Heneti are said, on the death of their leader, to have migrated to Thrace, and afterward to Italy, where they settled under the name of Veneti, their new leader being Antenor the Trojan. This story, however, is extremely doubtful.

V. The Paphlagonians were subdued by Crœsus, and after his fall became subjects of the Persian empire. After the death of Alexander, they fell, along with Cappadocia, to the share of Eumenes. Subsequently they formed part of the kingdom of Pontus; but, after the conquest of this kingdom by the Romans, they were allowed for some time to have kings of their own. Under the early Roman emperors, Paphlagonia did not form a separate province, but was united to Galatia till the time of Constantine, who first erected it into a separate province.

PLACES IN PAPHLAGONIA.

1. Sesamus, a little to the northeast of the mouth of the Parthenius. It was a Greek colony from Miletus, and is mentioned in the Iliad. It was afterward colonized by Amastris, niece of Darius Codomanus, and wife of Dionysius, tyrant of Heraclea Pontica, who gave it her name. It was a handsome town, and adorned with squares and public buildings. The modern name is Amasera. 2. Cytorus, to the northeast, also mentioned in the Iliad, and a factory of Sinope. Near it was Mount Cytorus, famed for its box wood. The modern name of the mountain is Sagra. The remains of the city itself are found near the modern Kidros. Farther on we come to Carambis Promontorium, now Cape Kerempe. 3. Abonitichos, a small town and harbor, the birth-place of an impostor named Alexander, who assumed the character of Æsculapius. The name of the place was changed, at his request, by the Emperor Marcian, to Ionopolis, of which the modern Ineboli is only a corruption. 4. Sinope, some distance to the east, founded by the Milesians, and the most important trading place on the Euxine. It received an accession of six hundred colonists from Athens, about the commencement of the Peloponnesian war. At the time of the retreat of the ten thousand, we learn from Xenophon that it was a rich and flourishing city, holding many of the neighboring towns in its dependence, and possessing considerable influence over the barbarous tribes of Paphlagonia and Cappadocia. Among its colonies were Cerăsus, Cotyora, and Trapezus, all flourishing cities on the Euxine coast of Asia Minor. It was mistress, also, by means of its powerful navy, of the Euxine Sea as far as the Cyanean islands, and it shared with Byzantium the lucrative fishery of the pelamys, a kind of tunny. Sinope was the birthplace of the cynic philosopher Diogenes. Conquered subsequently by Pharnaces, it became the chief town and residence of the kings of Pontus. - Here Mithradates Eupator, or the Great, was born, who greatly embellished and improved

the place, by forming a harbor on each side of the isthmus, on which the city was situate, erecting naval arsenals, and constructing admirable reservoirs for the tunny fishery. Sinope was taken from Mithradates by Lucullus, and a Roman colony was subsequently sent thither by Cæsar. It continued for a long period afterward a flourishing city. In the middle ages it formed part of the small empire of Trebizond, and fell into the hands of the Turks about 1470. The modern name is Sinub.

In the interior we may mention, 1. Cimiata, at the foot of Mount Olgassys, the stronghold originally of Mithradates Ctistes, the first sovereign of his line, who effected the conquest of Pontus. It was subsequently the capital of a district named Cimiatene. 2. Sandaracurgīum, to the northeast, a great mining settlement, where sandarach was obtained. This was a red pigment, called now red sulphuret of arsenic. The mines here were worked by slaves, who had been sold on account of crime, the process being a very unhealthy one, and great numbers dying in consequence. 3. Pompeiopölis, to the northwest, on the River Amnias, and founded by Pompey the Great. Its site is near the modern Tash-Kupri. The River Amnias is a tributary of the Halys, and is now the Kara Su, or river of Castamouni. On its banks was fought the great battle in which Mithradates Eupator defeated with great loss Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, which decisive victory was followed by the conquest of Bithynia, and nearly the whole of Asia Minor. 4. Castamon, to the southeast of Pompeiopolis, now Castamouni. Near it was an extensive plain called Gunaria. 5. Gangra, to the southeast, near the Halys, and the confines of Galatia. It was a city of some note, and the royal residence of Morezus, a Paphlagonian prince mentioned by Livy. It is often alluded to in the ecclesiastical writers as the metropolitan see of Paphlagonia. The orchards here produced apples much esteemed at Rome. The site of this place is occupied by the Turkish town of Kangreh. 6. Germanicopolis, to the east, built in honor of Germanicus, and situate near the Halys. 7. Andrapa, to the north, on a tributary of the Halys. It subsequently received the name of Neoclaudiopolis.

PONTUS.

I. Pontus took its name from the sea on which it lay, and was bounded on the north by the Euxine, on the northeast by Colchis, on the southeast and east by Armenia Minor, on the south by Cappadocia, and on the west by Paphlagonia and Galatia. The boundary between it and Colchis was formed by the River Acampsis. Ptolemy, less correctly, places this boundary as far east as the Phasis; and Strabo, on the other hand, at Trapezus. The southern boundary was formed by the chain of Mount Paryadres.

II. The northeastern part of Pontus is exceedingly barren. The western part is very fertile, and is well drained by the Rivers Iris, now Yeshil Ermak, and Thermodon, now Thermeh, and affords good pasture for numerous flocks. The district of Phanaræa was considered the most fertile part of Pontus, producing wine, oil, and many other things. Pontus con-

tained, also, mines of salt, iron, and rock crystal; and the coast exhibited some large and flourishing Greek cities, having good harbors, and carrying on an extensive traffic.

II. The tribes inhabiting Pontus were various and independent. In the more western part were the *Leucosyri*, or White Syrians, really Cappadocians, so called by the Greeks for distinction' sake from the swarthier Syrians of the south, but of the same origin. The range of Mount Paryadres, and that part of Scydises called *Frigidarium*, from its severe cold, were anciently, as now, occupied by small independent tribes, of whom an account is given us by Xenophon in his Anabasis.

III. Pontus was first erected into a separate kingdom by Ariobarzanes I., but does not make any figure in history until after the death of Alexander the Great, when Mithradates II., surnamed Ctistes (κτίστης), or "the founder," greatly enlarged and strengthened it. It attained its greatest prosperity under Mithradates VI., surnamed Eupator, or the Great, who was overthrown by the Romans in B.C. 63. The Romans rewarded Pharnaces II., the son of Mithradates, who had been treacherous to his father, with the kingdom of Bosporus; but on his attempting to regain his hereditary dominions in Pontus during the civil wars between Pompey and Cæsar, he was defeated by the latter, B.C. 47, and soon after slain. Pharnaces left a son, Darius, who was made King of Pontus by Antony, B.C. 39, but was soon deposed, and Polemo was appointed in his stead. Polemo was subsequently killed in an expedition, and was succeeded by his widow Pythodoris.

IV. Pontus became a Roman province in the reign of Nero, and was subsequently divided into three districts, called respectively *Pontus Galaticus*, *Cappadocicus*, and *Polemoniacus*. In the time of Constantine another division was made; the western part, which included *Pontus Galaticus* and *Cappadocicus*, being called *Helenopontus*, after Constantine's mother, while the eastern part preserved its name of *Polemoniacus*.

PLACES IN PONTUS.

AFTER crossing the Halys, we enter on what Herodotus calls the district of *Pteria*, and in which a great but undecisive battle was fought between Crossus and Cyrus. Herodotus describes this as the best and most important part of the Leuco-Syrian territory, and Strabo mentions it under the names of *Gadilon-itis* and *Saramēne*. It was a rich champaign country, and contained a breed of sheep with remarkably fine fleeces, accustomed to be protected with skins.

Advancing along the coast from the mouth of the Halys, we come to, 1. Amisus, a Milesian colony, afterward strengthened by one from Athens. It was eventually under the kings of Pontus, and was greatly enlarged and embellished by Mithradates Eupator, from whom it was taken by Lucullus. Under Augustus it became a free city, and is now Samsun, a town of considerable trade. It lay twenty stadia to the west of the river and town of Lycastus. 2. Heracleum, a port and promontory to the east of the mouth of the Iris. The headland, on which was a temple of Hercules, is now Cape Thermeh. Leaving this, we come to the mouth of the Thermodon, now Thermsh. This river is celebrated in poetry as the fabled seat of the Amazons, who are said at one time to have occupied the adjacent plains of Themiscyra. Apollonius of Rhodes calls this plain the Deantian, from a leader named Deas, and also states that the Amazons were divided into three separate cantons, all, however, under one queen. Strabo describes the plain of Themiscyra as a most rich and beautiful district, ever verdant, and able to supply food for innumerable herds of oxen and horses. 3. Themiscyra, a Greek city on the Thermodon, near its mouth, in the plain just mentioned, and remarkable for the vigor with which it defended itself against Lucullus. The townsmen sent bears, and other wild beasts, and even swarms of bees against the workmen who were undermining their walls. 4. Œnæ, to the east, on the coast, and a place of some consequence in the Middle Ages. It is now Unieh. 5. Polemonium, to the southeast, named after Polemo, king of that part of Pontus called from him Polemoniacus. It is not named by Strabo, and therefore probably was founded after his time. It was a place of importance. The headland Jasonium, in the vicinity, is now Cape Jasoun, and took its ancient name from the ship Argo's having anchored near it. The whole coast, from the vicinity of the Thermodon as far as this promontory, was once inhabited by the Chalybes, a barbarous people, celebrated in antiquity for the great iron mines and forges which existed in their country. Hamilton found some traces of the working of iron still existing in this quarter. Strabo states that the Chalybes had, in his time, changed their name to that of Chaldai. East of the Chalybes were the Tibareni, possessing numerous flocks and herds; and to the east of these the Mosynæci, so called by the Greeks, from their dwelling in small wooden turrets named \(\mu \delta \sigma vol. \) They were a wild and robber race. Xenophon gives an account of them in his Anabasis.

6. Cotyōra, a colony of Sinope, and a place of note as described by Xenophon. It furnished supplies to the ten thousand Greeks, who were quartered in its vicinity. In Arrian's time it was little more than a village, the population having been removed to the more modern Pharnacia. Its site answers to that of Buzuk-Kalé. 7. Pharnacia, to the east, founded by Pharnaces, grandfather of Mithradates Eupator, on the site of a Greek settlement named Charades. It is erroneously confounded by Arrian with Cerăsus, which lay farther to the east. The mistake probably arose from confounding the ancient names Cerasus and Charades. The modern name of Pharnacia is Keresoon, which has given countenance to the erroneous opinion just mentioned. Pharnacia obtained a large portion of its population from Cotyora. 8. Cerăsus, to the east, near the site now called Skefié. It was a colony of Sinope. From this vicinity Lucullus first brought the cherry-tree into Italy. Hence the Latin cerasus, "a cherry-tree," and cerasum, "a cherry;" unless we suppose the city to have derived its name from the tree itself. The adjacent hills are covered with forests, in which cherry-trees still grow naturally. 9. Trapēzus, to the east, a flourishing commercial city, and a colony of Sinope. It derived its name from the square form in which it was laid out, resembling a table (τράπεζα). Trapezus is celebrated for the hospitable reception which it gave to the ten thousand Greeks on their return, this being the first Greek colony which the latter had reached after the battle of Cunaxa. The place was subsequently embellished and improved by Hadrian. The modern name is Trebizond or Terabezoun. It was the seat of a small Greek empire in the Middle Ages, under a branch of the Comneni, and which ended with the capture of the city by the Turks in 1462. There are no places of any importance between Trapezus and the mouth of the Acampsis. The country lying inland from this part of the coast was occupied by several barbarous tribes, such as, 1. The Drila, the most warlike people in this quarter, according to Xenophon. 2. The Macrones, supposed to be of Colchian origin, from their practicing circumcision. 3. The Byzeres, a wild and savage race, who cut to pieces three cohorts of Pompey's army, by placing on their way a quantity of honey, which had the effect of intoxicating them, and depriving them of the power of resistance. Xenophon speaks of a similar effect produced by honey on the Greeks in the country of the Colchians near Trapezus. Pliny says that this honey was extracted from the flower of the rhododendron.

In the interior of Pontus we may mention, 1. Amasia, on the River Iris, and the native place of Strabo, who has left us a minute description of it. The site is occupied by the modern Amazieh. 2. Zela, some distance to the southeast, on the left bank of the Iris, and near the frontiers of Galatia. It was a place of great antiquity, and erected, according to Strabo, on the mound of Semiramis. It was at first apparently a spot consecrated to the worship of the goddess Anaïtis, a deity highly revered by the Persians, Armenians, and Cappadocians. Zela remained, however, a small town, until Pompey, after the defeat of Mithradates, increased its population and extent, and raised it to the rank of a city. Zela is remarkable for the victory obtained here by Cæsar over Pharnaces, and which he expressed in the laconic sentence "Veni, vidi, vici." The site is still called Zeleh. 3. Comana Pontica, to the northeast, and surnamed Pontica, to distinguish it from a Cappadocian city of the same name. It stood not far from the sources of the Iris. Comana was celebrated for the worship of the goddess Ma, supposed to answer to the Bellona of the Greeks, and likewise revered with equal honors in the Cappadocian town. The priesthood attached to the temple was an office of the highest emolument and dignity, and sought after by kings and princes. The city was large and populous, and kept up a considerable traffic with Armenia. There were no less than six thousand slaves attached to the service of the temple, and the festivals of Bellona, which were held twice a year, drew together an immense concourse. The worship was a licentious one. The remains of the place are now called Komanak. 4. Eupatoria, at the confluence of the Iris and the Lycus, now the Koulehissar. It was founded by Mithradates Eupator, but was not yet completed when he was forced to flee from Pontus by the Roman armies. Pompey, after the conquest of the country, completed the place, and called it, after himself, Magnopolis. Its remains are near Tchenikeh.

5. Cabira, to the south, at the foot of Mount Paryadres, and once the favorite residence of Mithradates. Pompey changed the name to Diopolis, and Pythodoris subsequently to Sebaste or Sebastopolis. The site is uncertain. 6. Canonchorion, to the south, one of the strongest holds of Mithradates, where Pompey found all the most precious jewels and other articles belonging to that monarch, together with his secret correspondence and papers. 7. Neo Casarea, to the southeast, near the Lycus, and founded probably in the reign of Tiberius. It was the native city of Gregory Thaumaturgus, who flourished in the middle of the third century, and in his days it was the most considerable town of Pontus. It is now Niksar, a town of some size, and the capital of the district of the same name.

PHRYGIA.

I. The boundaries of *Phrygia* differed at various times. Under the Persian empire and after the death of Alexander, it was bounded on the north by *Bithynia* and *Paphlagonia*, on the south by *Lycia*, *Pisidia*, and *Lycaonia*, on the east by *Pontus* and *Cappadocia*, and on the west by *Lydia* and *Mysia*. On the arrival and settlement, however, of the Gauls in Asia, a large proportion of the northern part was abstracted by them, and thenceforth bore the name of *Galatia*.

II. The ancient writers speak of the Great and Lesser Phrygia; by the former is meant Phrygia Proper; by the latter, a part of Mysia, comprising the territory of Old Troy, along the Hellespont and southern shore of the Propontis, and which had been taken possession of after the Trojan war by the Mysians The northern part of Phrygia Proper, remainand Phrygians. ing after the abstraction of Galatia, was called Phrygia Epictētus, or the "acquired," a name given to it when it was annexed by the Romans to the kingdom of Pergamus; and the southern part, which bordered on Mount Taurus, was called, from this circumstance, Phrygia Paroreios. In the fourth century, the Romans divided Phrygia into two provinces, Phrygia Salutaris and Phrygia Pacatiana; the former comprising the eastern, and the latter the western part of the ancient province.

III. Phrygia is a high table-land, supported on the south by Mount Taurus, and on the north by the high range of mountains running from west to east, under the ancient name of Olympus. The western and northern parts are very fertile; but the southern and eastern portions are covered with salt marshes, rivers, and lakes, which have no visible outlet. Of these salt lakes the most curious is the one called *Tatta* by Strabo, now *Tuzla*, which is thirty miles in length, and supplies a vast tract of country with salt. An account of this lake will be given under the head of Lycaonia.

IV. The Phrygians appear to have been of Thracian origin, and are said by some to have crossed over into Asia a hundred years before the Trojan war. Of the early history of Phrygia we know scarcely any thing. There would seem to have been a kingdom of considerable power in the northern part of the country under the Midian or Gordian dynasty. Strabo says,

that the palaces of Gordius and Midas were near the River Sangarius, the neighborhood of which was probably the central part of the dominions of these sovereigns. The Phrygians were conquered by Cræsus, and subsequently by the Persians. On the division of Alexander's dominions, Phrygia first came into the hands of Antigonus, and afterward formed part of the dominions of the Seleucidæ. After the defeat of Antiochus the Great, it was given to Eumenes, king of Pergamus, and on the death of Attalus, B.C. 133, it came by his bequest into the hands of the Romans, together with the other dominions of the kings of Pergamus.

PLACES IN PHRYGIA EPICTETUS.

1. Azani, near the source of the Rhyndacus, not often mentioned by the ancient writers, but which must have been a place of considerable importance from the description of its ruins given by Keppel, who says that the modern village of Tjaudere Hissar is built entirely out of them. 2. Cadi, to the south-west, now Kedous, a town celebrated for its scammony. To the west of it was Mount Dindymene, now Morad Dagh, and anciently sacred to Cybele, like Mount Dindymus, near Pessinus in Galatia. 3. Cotyæum, to the northeast of Azani, on the River Thymbrius, and, according to some, the birth-place of Æsop. It is now Kutaya, and still a considerable place. 4. Dorylaum, to the northeast, also on the Thymbrius, and at no great distance from its union with the Sangarius. It is often spoken of by the Byzantine historians. There were warm springs in its neighborhood. It corresponds, according to Leake, to the modern Eski-Shehr, which is celebrated for its natural hot baths. 5. Midaum, to the northeast, and deriving its name from Midas, an appellation so common to the ancient kings of Phrygia, of whom it was probably once the residence. 6. Nacolēa, southeast of Cotyæum, a place of importance under the eastern emperors, and often mentioned by later writers. The usurper Procopius was defeated here by Valens.

PLACES IN CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN PHRYGIA.

1. Synnăda, to the southeast of Cotyæum, and the most considerable town of this part of Phrygia, being a conventus juridicus for all the surrounding places. It was situate at the end of a plain sixty stadia long, planted with olives, and was a city of extensive traffic and commerce, as it lay on the road from Apamēa Cibōtus to Galatia, and also on the way, or nearly so, from Apamea to Iconium and Cilicia. Its site is uncertain, but probably, as Hamilton thinks, at the modern Surmeneh. 2. Docimia or Docimaum, to the north, at the upper extremity of the plain in which Synnada stood. It was celebrated for its marble, of a light color, interspersed with blood-red spots and veins, fabled to have come from the blood of Atys. This marble was called by the people of the country Docimitic or Docimaan, but by the Romans the Synnadic, from the adjacent and more important city of Synnada. It was highly prized by the Romans, especially in the reign of Hadrian. The quarries are placed by Leake on the road from Khosru-khan to Bulvudun. 3. Ipsus, a short distance to the southeast of Synnada, celebrated for the great battle fought in its plains by Antigonus and his

son Demetrius against the combined forces of Cassander, Lysimachus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus. It ended in the defeat of Antigonus, who lost his life and all his conquests. 4. Melisse or Melitæa, to the southwest, a small place, but rendered memorable by Alcibiades having been interred there. A statue of Parian marble was afterward placed on his tomb by order of Hadrian, and a yearly sacrifice of an ox offered to his shade. This place is probably the same with Ptolemy's Melitara. 5. Polybōtus, to the southeast, now Bulwudun. 6. Philomelium, to the southeast, in Phrygia Paroreios, often mentioned by the Byzantine historians in the wars of the Greek emperors with the sultans of Iconium. It was situate near the modern Ilgun. 6. Laodicea Combusta (κατακεκαυμένη), to the southeast, and so surnamed from the volcanic nature of the district in which it was situated. It is now Ladik, and famed for its manufacture of carpets.

Returning to the more central part of Phrygia, we come to, 1. Pelta, on or near the River Orgas, to the west of the Glaucus, and giving the name of Peltenus Campus to the plain in which it was situate. Xenophon, in his Anabasis, describes it as a well-inhabited city. 2. Eumenia, to the south, near the junction of the Glaucus and Orgas, and founded by Eumenes, king of Pergamus. Its remains are at Ashkli. 3. Apamēa Cibōtus, to the south, near the junction of the Glaucus and Mæander. It was founded by Antiochus Soter, on the site of an earlier place named Cibotus, and was called by him Apamēa, in honor of his mother Apama, daughter of Artabazus, and espoused to Seleucus Nicator. The inhabitants of the neighboring Celænæ were removed to this new city, which soon became a place of importance, from the fertility of the surrounding country, the abundance and beauty of the rivers which flowed around it, and, above all, its situation on the great road to Cappadocia and the Euphrates, so that, when Strabo wrote, its traffic yielded only to that of Ephesus, and it was the largest town of Phrygia. It suffered severely from an earthquake in the reign of Claudius, but still continued a very flourishing city for a long period subsequently. Its ruins are at the modern town of Deenare. 4. Celana, a little to the southeast, at the sources of the Marsyas, a tributary of the Mæander. It was celebrated in mythology as the scene of the contest between Apollo and the satyr Marsyas, and the skin of the latter was said to have been hung up in the cave whence the river flowed. The greater part of the inhabitants of Celænæ were removed by Antiochus Soter to his new city of Apamea, in consequence of which the former became a place of small importance. The citadel of Celænæ was built on a precipitous height, and was of great strength, but surrendered to Alexander.

5. Colossæ, to the southwest, on the left bank of the Mæander, and mentioned by both Herodotus and Xenophon as a large and flourishing city. Strabo and Pliny, however, at a later day, call it only a small place. It carried on, however, even in Strabo's time, a very lucrative wool trade. At Colossæ there was formed a Christian church, to which St. Paul, who does not appear to have ever visited the place himself, wrote an epistle. Colossæ suffered severely from an earthquake in the ninth year of the reign of Nero, from which it never fully recovered; and, under the Byzantine emperors, being now in a ruinous state, it made way for a more modern town named Chonæ, built only a short distance from it. This latter place is chiefly known to us from the account of Nicetas, the Byzantine annalist, who was born here, whence his surname of Choniates. Some remains of Colossæ and Chonæ are to be seen near each other, at the village of Khonas. 6. Hierapolis, to the west, near the River Lycus, and celebrated for its warm springs. The waters of this place were also remarkable

for their petrifying properties, and were likewise extremely useful in serving the purposes of the dyer. The ruins of Hierapolis are conspicuous on the site called Pambouk Kalessi. 7. Laodīcēa ad Lycum, to the south, and so called from its proximity to the River Lycus. Pliny says it was originally named Diospolis, and afterward Rhoos; and, according to Stephanus, its name was changed to Laodicea in honor of Laodice, the wife of Antiochus II. There was a Christian church at Laodicea in the time of the apostles. Strabo says that this place was celebrated for the sheep which fed in the plains around it, and that their wool was considered superior to that of Miletus. The ruins of Laodicea, which are considerable, are seen a little below Denisli, on the site called Eski Hissar, and sometimes Ladik.

GALATIA.

I. Galătia originally formed part of Phrygia and Cappadocia, and derived its name from the Galătæ or Gauls, who had migrated hither from Europe. It was likewise called Gallo-Græcia, from the intermixture of the customs and languages of the Gauls and Greeks in this province.

II. Galatia was bounded on the north by Paphlagonia and part of Bithynia, on the east by Pontus, on the south by Phrygia and Cappadocia, and on the west by Phrygia and part of Bithynia.

III. The first horde of Gauls that appeared in Asia (B.C. 279) formed part of the army with which Brennus invaded Greece. In consequence of some dissensions in his army, a considerable number of his troops, under the command of Leonorius and Lutarius, left their countrymen and marched into Thrace; thence they proceeded to Byzantium, and crossed over into Asia at the invitation of Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, who was anxious to secure their assistance against his brother Zipætes. With their aid Nicomedes was successful, but his allies now became his masters, and he as well as the other monarches of Asia Minor to the west of Mount Taurus were exposed for many years to the ravages of these barbarians, and obliged to purchase safety by the payment of tribute. Encouraged by the success of their countrymen, fresh hordes passed over into Asia, and their number became so great, that, as Justin informs us, the whole country swarmed with them, and no Eastern monarch carried on war without a mercenary army of Gauls.

IV. The first check they received was from Attalus I., king of Pergamus, who defeated them in a great battle (B.C. 239), and compelled them to settle permanently in that part of Asia which was afterward called *Galatia*. Though Attalus, however, reduced their power, they still continued independent, and gave Antiochus great assistance in his contest with the Romans. Having thus incurred the enmity of the Roman republic, the consul Manlius was sent against them B.C. 189, and completely defeated them, so that from this time they were in reality subject to Rome, though allowed to retain their own native princes.

V. According to Strabo, Galatia was inhabited by three tribes of Gauls, the *Troemi*, the *Tectosăges*, and the *Tolistoboii*. Each tribe was subdivided into four parts, and each part was governed by a tetrarch, who appointed a judge and an inspector of the army. The power of these twelve tetrarchs was limited by a senate of three hundred, who assembled at a place called *Drynametum*, and

who took cognizance of all capital cases. All other offences were left to the jurisdiction of the tetrarchs and judges.

VI. Subsequently, however, during the times of the first Mithradatic war, there were only three tetrarchs, to whom the Romans, out of policy, paid the courtesy of princely dignity. Soon after, the three tetrarchs dwindled into two chiefs, and finally into one. This last change was made by the Romans in favor of Deiotarus, who had rendered their arms essential service against Mithradates. He became sole master of Galatia, and received a part of the kingdom of Pontus with the royal title. On his death, part of his principality was annexed to Paphlagonia and Pontus under Polemo, and part to the dominions of Amyntas, chief of Lycaonia. On the demise of the latter, the whole of Galatia became a Roman province.

VII. In the time of Theodosius the Great, Galatia was divided into two provinces, Galatia Prima and Galatia Secunda. Ancyra was the capital of the former, Pessinus of the latter. Though intermixed with Greeks, the Galatians retained throughout their original tongue, since we are assured by St. Jerome that in his day they spoke the same language as the Treviri of Gaul. Galatia was, generally speaking, a fruitful and well-peopled country.

PLACES IN GALATIA.

The Tolistoboii occupied the southwestern part of the country. Among them we find, 1. Pessīnus, their chief city, on the confines of Bithynia, and near the left bank of the River Sangarius. This place was one of great trade, and was also celebrated in antiquity for the worship of the goddess Rhea or Cybele. statue of the goddess, which was nothing more than a great stone, was conveyed to Rome, near the close of the second Punic war, in obedience to the direction of the Sibylline Oracles. Above the town rose Mount Dindymus, whence the goddess was surnamed Dindymene. The worship of Cybele was still observed in Pessinus after its occupation by the Gauls. The Phrygian name of the goddess was Agdistis, an appellation given also to Mount Dindymus. remains of Pessinus are to be seen at Balahissar. 2. Germa, to the southwest, called by Ptolemy a Roman colony, and supposed from its coins to have been established in the time of Vespasian and his sons. It took, at a later period, the name of Myriangëli. The modern Yerma evidently represents it. 3. Armorium, to the east, a place of great importance under the Byzantine emperors. It was taken and sacked by the Saracens. The site is still called Amoria.

The Tectosages were settled to the northeast of the Tolistoboii. Among them we may mention, 1. Ancyra, their capital, and the largest and most celebrated city in the whole province. Tradition made it to have been founded by Midas, who was said to have named the place from an anchor (ἀγκυρα) which he found on the site, and which was exhibited, as Pausanias relates, in the temple of Jupiter. This city was greatly improved and embellished by Augustus; and under Nero it was styled the metropolis of Galatia. Its situation was extremely well adapted for inland trade, and it became a kind of staple place for the commodities of the east. Here was found, in modern times, the famous inscription, called Marmor Ancyranum, on a temple erected to Augustus, giving a history of his several acts and public merits. Ancyra is now called by the Turks Angouri, and by Europeans Angora, and is the place whence the celebrated shawls and hosiery made of goat's hair were originally brought. Near this place Bajazet was conquered and made prisoner by Tamerlane. 2. Corbeus, to the southeast, the residence of Sacondarius, son-in-law of Deiotarus, and father of Cas-

tor, who accused the former before Cæsar of plotting against his life. It answers to the modern Corbega.

The *Trocmi* were settled in the eastern part of Galatia, toward Pontus and Cappadocia. Their territory formed the best and most productive of any that had fallen to the Galatian tribes. The only place worth mentioning among them is *Tavium* or *Tavia*, their capital. It was a city of considerable traffic, and was celebrated for a bronze statue of Jupiter, of colossal size, placed in a sacred grove having the right of an asylum. The position of Tavium is an important point in the geography of Asia Minor, from the number of routes which branched off from it. The site of this place answers, not, as is commonly supposed, to the modern *Tchorum*, but rather, as Hamilton thinks, to *Boghaz Kcui*.

PISIDIA.

I. Pisidia was bounded on the west and north by Phrygia, on the east by Isauria, on the south by Pamphylia. It was a mountainous country, forming part of the chain of Taurus, in which the Pisidians maintained their independence, not only under the Persian empire, but also under the Syrian kings, and even the Roman sway. The Romans were never able to subdue them, though they obtained possession of some of their towns, as, for instance, of Antiochia, where a Roman colony possessing the Jus Italicum was founded. In the time of Strabo, the Pisidians were governed by petty chiefs, and principally supported themselves by plundering their neighbors.

II. We know very little of the physical geography of Pisidia, or the situation of its towns. The most singular features in this country are, according to Fellows, the mountains of volcanic dust, which he saw at ten miles' distance, looking as if they were smoking; this appearance being caused by the sand, which, with very little wind, is blown into clouds, and carried into the air and along the valleys. The whole of this sand or dust is tufa, the dust of the pumice stone, a volcanic production.

PLACES IN PISIDIA.

1. Termessus, a fortress at the entrance of the defiles leading from Pisidia into Pamphylia, and from its commanding situation a place of great importance. 2. Cretŏpōlis, to the north, close to the passes leading into Pamphylia. The remains are probably those near Buttakli. 3. Sozopōlis, to the northwest, regarded by Mannert, incorrectly, as the same place with Cretopolis. It is mentioned by the Byzantine historians, and, according to Nicetas, was taken from the Turks by John Commenus, but retaken by them. Its site appears to be that called at the present day Souzu. 4. Sagalassus, to the north, spoken of by Arrian, and afterward by Livy, as a large and populous city. Livy describes the adjacent territory as exceedingly fertile. The site is near the modern village of Aglasoun. 5. Cremna, to the northeast, an important fortress, and deemed impregnable until taken by the tetrarch Amyntas. It was regarded afterward

by the Romans as a post of such military consequence that they established a colony there. It is generally supposed that this town is represented by the modern fort of Kebrinaz, occupying a commanding situation near Lake Egreder, the ancient Agrioteri Lacus. 6. Antiochia Pisidiæ, to the north, at the extremity of the province, a city of considerable importance, and interesting from its connection with the labors of St. Paul in Asia Minor. It was founded by a colony from Magnesia on the Mæander, under the auspices probably of Antiochus, from whom it derived its name. The Romans sent a colony hither, and made it the capital of a proconsular government. It was visited by St. Paul and Barnabas, and was afterward the metropolitan see of Pisidia. Arundell supposes the remains of this city to be at Yalobatch, with which Hamilton agrees. 7. Tyriæum, to the east, mentioned by Xenophon in his Anabasis as the place where the younger Cyrus stopped three days and reviewed his troops. Hamilton identifies it with the modern Ilghun.

CAPPADOCIA.

I. Cappadŏcia, including Lycaonia and Isauria, was bounded on the north by Pontus, Galatia, and Phrygia Paroreios, on the south by the range of Mount Taurus, dividing it from Cilicia and Pamphylia, on the west by Pisidia and Phrygia, and on the east by the Euphrates, separating it from Armenia Minor.

II. Cappadocia was surrounded on three sides by great ranges of mountains, besides being intersected by others of as great elevation as any in the peninsula. Hence its mineral productions were various and abundant, and a source of wealth to the country. It had, however, but little wood, almost the only timber district being in the neighborhood of Mount Argæus. The tribute which Cappadocia paid to the Persian monarch consisted chiefly of horses, mules, and sheep, the high tablelands of this country forming admirable pasture land.

III. The Cappadocians appear to have been a branch of the Syrian race—at least the Persians considered them as such, from the resemblance of their language, customs, and religion; and they called them by an appellation which the Greeks expressed by that of Λευκόσυροι (Leucosyri), or "White Syrians," because they found that they possessed a fairer complexion than their swarthy brethren of the south. The Greeks, on the other hand, called them Καππάδοκες (Cappadŏces) or Cappadocians, from the River Cappadox, as is thought, now the Kissilhissar, a branch of the Halys.

IV. The condition of Cappadocia before the period of the Persian rule is uncertain. Even after the Persian conquest the government was left in the hands of the native princes.

The Romans, when they became masters of it, incorporated with their province of Cappadocia the adjacent district of Armenia Minor.

V. The Cappadocians were noted for their vicious and unprincipled character, and they were one of the three bad Kappas, or names beginning with the letter K (the Roman C), the Cretans and Cilicians being the other two. The whole nation, too, might be said to be addicted to servitude; for when they were offered a free constitution by the Romans, they declined the favor, and preferred receiving a master from the hands of their allies.

We will first enumerate the most important places in Cappadocia Proper, and then give a separate account of Lycaonia and Isauria.

PLACES IN CAPPADOCIA PROPER.

In the præfecture of Morimēne, in the northwestern section of the country, we have, 1. Parnassus, on a mountain of the same name, a place of some consequence, and at a later period a bishop's see. The mountain is now called Pascha Dagh. 2. Venasa, to the southeast, celebrated for its temple of Jupiter, to which no less than 3000 slaves were attached, and the high priest over which was next in rank to the one at Comana. 3. Nyssa, to the southeast, on the Halys, celebrated in connection with the name of Gregory, brother of Basil, and surnamed Nyssenus, from his long residence here as bishop of its church. Its site is now marked by the village of Nirse. 4. Mocissus, to the northwest, a town of some size and note in the reign of Justinian, who built it on the site of an ancient fortress. It was also called, from this circumstance, Justinianopolis.

The next Cappadocian præfecture bore the name of Cilicia, and was situate to the southeast of the former. The origin of the name is not known. In this district we have, 1. Mazăca, its chief city, and the capital likewise of the whole province, better known at a later period by the name of Casarea, with the topographical adjunct ad Argaum, to denote its position at the foot of Mount Argaus. It was a city of great antiquity, and its foundation was even ascribed to Mesech, son of Japhet. The situation was extremely unfavorable, water being scarce, and the surrounding country a dry, sandy plain. Still, however, the kings of Cappadocia fixed their residence at Mazaca, in consequence of its central situation in the midst of other and more fertile districts. Mazaca assumed, in fact, the appearance of a large camp rather than of a regular city, being open and unfortified. The royal property, consisting chiefly of slaves, was kept in different fortresses throughout the country. In the reign of Tiberius, when Cappadocia became a Roman province, Mazaca changed its name to Cæsarea, and appears to have gradually increased in size and consequence under successive emperors, being now a regular and fortified city. St. Basil was born and educated here, and presided over its church for many years. The modern name of the place is Kaisarich. Mount Argæus, in the vicinity of this city, is now called Arjish Dagh, and belongs to the range of Antitaurus. Hamilton estimates the height at about 13,000 feet above the sea. It is the loftiest peak in the peninsula, and affords abundant indications of having once been a volcano.

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The country around has also a volcanic character. Strabo's statement, that both the Euxine and Mediterranean are visible from the summit of Argæus, is untrue, and confuted by the bare inspection of a map. 2. Dacora, a village near Cæsarea, the birth-place of Eunomius, the Arian heretic, and whither he was banished by Theodosius.

Another Cappadocian præfecture deserving of mention was that of *Melitène*, along the right bank of the Euphrates. Its soil was fertile, and yielded fruits of every kind, in this differing from the rest of Cappadocia. The chief produce was oil, and a wine called Monarites, which equalled the best of Grecian growth. The only place deserving of mention here is *Melitène*, originally a camp or military station, but converted into a town by order of Trajan, and which became eventually one of the most important places in Cappadocia. Justinian again enlarged its circuit, and adorned it with several buildings. It still retains traces of its former name under that of *Malatia*, but is in ruins.

The præfecture of Tyanītis lay to the south of that of Cilicia, and bordered on the defiles of Taurus and the passes leading into Cilicia. It took its name from Tyăna, the principal town, and a place of considerable repute and great antiquity. Strabo reports that this city was built on what was called the causeway of Semiramis, and was well fortified. It is supposed to be the same with the place called Dana by Xenophon, in his Anabasis. Its proximity to the Cilician pass must have rendered it a place of considerable traffic. Tyana is also noted for having been the birth-place of the famous impostor Apollonius. Its ruins are at Ketch-hissar. After Tyana we may mention, 1. Cybistra, to the northeast, frequently mentioned in the epistles of Cicero, during his command in Cilicia, and where at one time he established his head-quarters. Leake places it at Kara-hissar; D'Anville, less correctly, at Bustere, but this last is an error for Costere. 2. Castabala, to the northeast, remarkable for a temple sacred to Diana Perasia, the priestesses of which could tread with naked feet, unharmed, on burning cinders. The statue was said to have been the identical one brought by Orestes from Tauris, whence the name of Perasia, "from beyond the sea," was thought to be derived. More probably, however, Perasia is merely corrupted from Persia, and the goddess here worshipped was the Persian Anaïtis. The site corresponds probably to the modern Nigdé. 3. Nora or Neroassus, a fortress to the northwest of Tyana, where Eumenes sustained a long and difficult siege against Antigonus. The remains are now called Nour. 4. Faustinopolis, to the southeast of Tyana, and distant twelve miles from that city. It was named from the Empress Faustina, the consort of Marcus Aurelius, who died here on her return from Syria. Her husband erected the town and a temple in it to her memory. The site of the place was previously occupied by a village named Halala. 5. Podandus, to the southeast, a village often mentioned by Byzantine writers in connection with the defiles of Taurus in its vicinity. St. Basil describes it as the most miserable place on earth. It retains the name of Podend.

The præfecture remaining to be noticed is that of Cataonia, consisting chiefly of deep and extensive plains, surrounded on all sides by chains of mountains. We may mention in it, 1. Comāna, the principal city, and celebrated, like its namesake in Pontus, for the worship of Bellona. The population consisted, in a great degree, of soothsayers, priests, and slaves, belonging to the sacred institution: the latter amounted, in Strabo's time, to more than 6000 of both sexes. These belonged exclusively to the high priest, who stood next in rank to the King of Cappadocia, and was generally chosen from the royal family. The territory annexed to the temple was very considerable, and furnished a

large income for the pontiff. The Bellona of Comana was probably no other than the Anaitis of the Persians and Armenians, and perhaps the Agdistis and Cybele of the Phrygians. Comana received a Roman colony under Antoninus Pius, and perhaps another under Caracalla. It is now represented by the Turkish town of Al-Bostan, on the Scihoun, the ancient Sarus. 2. Cucusus, to the southeast, a lonely spot, to which St. Chrysostom was banished in the reign of Arcadius. Mountain passes led from it into Commagene and Syria. The site is still called Cocsou, near the sources of the Gihoun, the ancient Pyramus.

LYCAONIA.

I. Lycaönia is first mentioned by Xenophon, in his Anabasis, who describes it as extending eastward from Iconium to the beginning of Cappadocia, a distance of thirty parasangs, about one hundred and ten English miles. It was united during the Persian monarchy to the satrapy of Cappadocia, which seems the most natural arrangement. Lycaonia is described by Strabo as high table land, deficient in water, which the inhabitants could only procure by digging deep wells, but well adapted for sheep.

II. The most remarkable physical feature in Lycaonia is that presented by the salt lake in the north, on the confines of Galatia, called by the ancients Tatta Palus, and now Lake Tuzla or Duslag. It is about forty-five English miles long, and about eighteen in its extreme width. Its waters, according to the ancients, were so impregnated with brine, that if any substance was dipped into the lake, it was presently incrusted with a thick coat of salt; and even birds, when flying near the surface, had their wings moistened with the saline particles, so as to become incapable of rising into the air, and were easily caught. This lake still furnishes all the surrounding country with salt. The specific gravity of the water is said to be greater than that of the Dead Sea.

III. The northern part of Lycaonia was united, at what time is uncertain, to Galatia, but the southern part was governed, in the time of Cicero, by an independent prince of the name of Antipater, who resided in Derbe. Antipater, however, being afterward conquered by Amyntas, king of Galatia, the whole of Lycaonia fell under the power of the Galatians. At the death of Amyntas, B.C. 25, Lycaonia, together with Galatia, became a Roman province. In the time of Pliny it formed a separate tetrarchy, which contained fourteen towns.

PLACES IN LYCAONIA.

1. Iconium, the most considerable city in Lycaonia. Strabo describes it as a small but well-inhabited place, situate in a more fertile tract of country than the northern part of Lycaonia. Mythological writers asserted that the name of this city was derived from the image (εἰκών) of the Gorgon, brought thither by Perseus. The most interesting circumstances, however, connected with the history of Iconium, are those which relate to St. Paul's preaching there, toward the commencement of his apostolical mission to the Gentiles. In Pliny's time, Iconium had become a more considerable town than when Strabo wrote. Under the Byzantine emperors frequent mention is made of this place, but it had been wrested from them first by the Saracens, and afterward by the Turks, who made it the capital of an empire, the sovereigns of which took the title of sultans of Iconium. The modern name of the place is Konieh, and it is still a large and populous town. Near Iconium was the Lake Trogitis, now, according to Hamilton, the Lake of Soghla, or Seidi Schehr. 2. Soatra or Sabatra, to the northeast, and where, according to Strabo, water was so scarce as to be an article for sale. On the neighboring downs were numerous wild asses. 3. Derbe, to

the southeast of Iconium, the residence and capital of Antipater. It was called by some *Delbia*, which, in the Lycaonian language, signified "the Juniper." It corresponds, according to Hamilton, to the modern *Divlé*. 4. *Lystra*, to the northwest, and nearer to Iconium. Both Lystra and Derbe are mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles, in connection with the history of St. Paul. The ruins of Lystra are, according to Hamilton, at *Binbir-Kilisseh*, or "the one thousand churches." 5. *Laranda*, to the southeast of Derbe, the birth-place of Nestor, an epic poet, and father of Pisander, also a poet, and of greater celebrity. It is now *Larenda* or *Karaman*, the former name being in use among the Christian inhabitants, the latter being the Turkish appellation.

ISAURIA.

I. Isauria, lying to the southeast of Lycaonia, was a wild and mountainous country, and is mentioned by Strabo as a part of Lycaonia. The character of the inhabitants partook of the nature of their iand and climate. They descended into the level country, and ravaged and plundered wherever they could overcome the resistance of the inhabitants of the valleys, whether in Cilicia, Phrygia, or Pisidia. These marauding habits rendered them so formidable to their neighbors that the Roman senate was obliged at length to send a considerable force against them, under the command of P. Servilius, who, after several campaigns, and a laborious and harassing warfare, succeeded in taking most of their fortresses, and in reducing them to submission. He obtained a triumph for these successes, and the surname of Isauricus.

II. Subsequently we find them still continuing to infest their neighbors, which induced Amyntas, the Lycaonian tetrarch, to attempt their extirpation. In this project, however, he lost his life; and they continued to defy the power of Rome anew from the difficult nature of their country, and the celerity of their movements. To the Greek emperors they proved particularly formidable, since whole armies are said to have been cut to pieces by these hardy mountaineers. They once had the honor of giving an emperor to the East, Zeno, surnamed the Isaurian; but they were subsequently much reduced by Anastasius, and were no longer formidable in the time of Justinian.

PLACES IN ISAURIA.

1. Isaura, the principal place, on the road between Iconium and Anemurium in Cilicia, and to the southwest of the former. The inhabitants, after a brave resistance to the forces of Perdiccas, who wished to avenge the death of a Macedonian governor slain by them, destroyed themselves and all their property by the flames. Being subsequently rebuilt, the place was again destroyed by P. Servilius. The Romans having after this ceded the ruined city to Amyntas, the latter built a new Isaura near the old town, and out of its ruins. Hence the distinction which the ancient geographers make between Isaura Vetus and Isaura Euerces (εὐερκής, "the well-fortified"), the latter being the appellation of the new city. D'Anville makes Isaura Vetus answer to the modern Bei-Schehr, and Isaura Euerces to Sidi Schehr; Hamilton, however, more correctly identifies the ruins of Isaura with those at Zengi Bor. 2. Carălia, to the northwest, at the upper extremity of the Lake Caralitis, afterward Pusgusa. This lake was connected with a smaller one to the southeast, called Trogitis. answers now to Kereli. Cramer makes the Lake Trogitis to be now that of Bei Schehr; Hamilton, however, shows that Kereli and Bei Schehr both lie on the same lake, and that the Lake Trogitis is now that of Soghla or Seidi Schehr.

ISLANDS ALONG THE COAST OF ASIA MINOR.

(A.) ISLANDS IN THE PROPONTIS.

1. Proconnēsus, or the Isle of Stags ($\Pi\rho\kappa\kappa\delta\nu\nu\eta\sigma\sigma\varsigma$, i. e., $\pi\rho\delta\kappa\omega\nu$ $\nu\bar{\eta}\sigma\sigma\varsigma$), now the Isle of Marmara, from which last the modern name of the Propontis, "the Sea of Marmara," is derived. It was much celebrated for its marble quarries, which supplied most of the public buildings in Cyzīcus with their materials, as also the palace of King Mausōlus in Halicarnassus. The marble was white, with black streaks intermixed. There was a town of the same name in the island, of which Aristeas, who wrote a poem on the Arimaspians, was a native. It was burned by a Phenician fleet, acting under the orders of Darius, but afterward rebuilt, and hence Strabo distinguishes between an old and a new Proconnesus. The island was subsequently conquered by the people of Cyzicus, who removed thence the statue of Dindymēne. 2. Ophiussa, to the southeast, now Afzia. Cramer's map gives the modern name as Rabby. 3. Halōne, to the south of Proconnesus, and opposite the mouth of the Æsēpus. It is now Aloni, and has still the good harbor which Scylax anciently ascribed to it.

(B.) ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF MYSIA.

1. IMBROS.

Imbros lay to the northwest of the Sigaum Promontorium, and is now Imbro. It appears to have been originally occupied by the Pelasgi. The Persians next obtained possession of it, and after them the Athenians, the latter of whom obtained from this island very excellent light-armed troops. There was a town, probably of the same name with the island, the ruins of which are to be seen at a place called Castro.

2. LEMNOS.

I. Lemnos lay to the southwest of Imbros, and is now called Stalimene. This island is known in mythology as the spot on which Vulcan fell when hurled from heaven, and where he first established his forges. A volcano, named Mosychlus, which once was burning here, appears to have given rise to the fable. A story is also recorded of the women of Lemnos having murdered all the male inhabitants, and of the island's having been found in their possession by the Argonauts, when the latter touched there.

II. Lemnos was first occupied by the Sintians, a Thracian tribe. To these succeeded the Pelasgi, who had been driven out of Attica. These Pelasgi subsequently stole some Attic females from Brauron and carried them to Lemnos; and it is said that the children of these women having despised their half brethren, born of Pelasgian women, the Pelasgi took the resolution of murdering both the Athenian females and their offspring. In consequence of all these atrocities, Lemnos had a bad name among the Greeks. The island afterward was conquered by the Persians, and subsequently taken by the Athenians under Miltiades. During the Peloponnesian war it remained in the possession of Athens, and furnished that state with its best light-armed troops.

III. Lemnos bears evident marks of volcanic origin. Mosychlus, already mentioned, is supposed to have been the earliest volcano known to the Greeks. It was situate on the eastern side of the island, and is thought to have sunk in the sea a short time after the age of Alexander, along with the little island of Chrysa, where Philocetees had once taken up his abode. The western part of Lemnos is much more fertile than the eastern; but the whole island is deficient

in timber trees and wood for fuel. The principal harbor, Sant Antonio, is large and safe. Lemnos was celebrated for a kind of red earth, called "Lemnian earth," and supposed to have wonderful medicinal properties, and which is in equally high repute, for the same reason, among the Greeks and Turks at the present day. It is shaped into little balls, and stamped with the Turkish governor's seal, whence it has derived the name of terra sigillata, or "sealed earth."

3. TENEDOS.

Tenedos lay off the coast of Troas, about fifty-six miles to the north of Lesbos. The Greeks, according to the legend followed by Virgil, retired to this island with their fleet preparatory to surprising Troy. It subsequently received a colony of Æolians, and became celebrated for the wisdom of its laws and civil institutions. Aristotle is known to have written on its polity. Subsequently, on its decline, this island placed itself under the protection of Alexandrea Troas. At a still later period, it derived again some importance from the granaries which Justinian caused to be erected there, for the purpose of housing the cargoes of corn brought from Egypt, and intended for Constantinople, but which were frequently delayed by contrary winds blowing from the Hellespont. Tenedos is now called Tenedo.

4. LESBOS.

I. Lesbos lay just below the Sinus Adramyttenus, and between it and the Sinus Cumæus. Its modern name is Metelin, which is also that of the ancient Mytilene, its chief city. Its length is fifty miles, its breadth varies from seven to fifteen miles. The earliest inhabitants are said to have been Pelasgi. It was afterward colonized by the Æolians in their great migration, and became one of the most flourishing and powerful of the Grecian islands. The most profitable production of Lesbos was wine, which was preferred in many countries to all the other Greek wines. To the present day, the oil and figs of this island are accounted the best in the Archipelago.

II. The Lesbians were notorious for their dissolute manners; and yet, at the same time, they had the reputation of high refinement, and distinguished intellectual culture. Poetry and music made great progress among them. The musicians of Lesbos were deemed the best, generally speaking, in Greece. It produced some of the first lyric poets—in particular, Alcæus and Sappho; several distinguished philosophers and rhetoricians, such as Theophrastus, Diophanes, the friend of Tiberius Gracchus, Theophanes, the friend of Pompey, Potamo, and others; the historian Hellanicus was likewise a native, as well as the musician Terpander, who invented the lyre with seven chords.

III. Among the cities of Lesbos we may name the following: 1. Mytilēne, the capital, on the eastern coast, having superior advantages as a maritime situation, and possessing two harbors. Besides its natural advantages, it was greatly adorned and beautified by art. It was the native place, also, of Alcœus and Sappho, and the historians Hellanicus and Myrsilus. Pittacus, one of the seven sages of Greece, long presided over its councils and directed its affairs. It is still a considerable place, called Metelin, and gives name also to the island. 2. Methymna, to the northwest, on the western coast, and next in importance to Mytilene. It stood near the northernmost point of the island, and was only sixty stadia from the coast of Troas. Arion, the celebrated musician, was born here. The wine of this place was held in great estimation. The remains of Methymna are to be seen near the village of Molivo. 3. Egīrus, a small place, dependent on Methymna, and situate on the eastern coast, where the island is

only twenty stadia broad. 4. Antissa, on the western coast, near the promontory of Sigrium, now Cape Sigri. It was the birth-place of Terpander. 5. Eressus, to the south, on the same coast, and the native place of Theophrastus. It was famous for the excellence of its wheaten flour. The site still preserves the name of Eresso. 6. Pyrrha, to the southeast, on the same side of the island. It was situate in a deep bay, with a narrow inlet, called from this circumstance the Euripus of Pyrrha, and which answers now to Port Caloni.

(C.) ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF LYDIA. 1. CHIOS.

I. Chios lay to the south of Lesbos, and facing the Ionian peninsula on which Clazomenæ and Erythræ were situated. It is separated from the main land by a channel about eight miles wide. Its length from north to south is about thirty miles, and its greatest breadth about ten. It is mountainous, especially in the northern part, the principal summit of which, called anciently Mount Pellinæus, now Mount St. Elias, consists of a long line of bare rocks. The wine of Chios was celebrated anciently as among the best of the Greek wines, and it still enjoys the same high reputation. The figs of Chios were also excellent. This island is called by the modern Greeks Chio, and by the Italians Scio. The Turkish name is Saki-Adassi, or "Mastic Island," from the gum mastic which grows there in abundance, and which is much used at Constantinople, especially by the ladies of the Seraglio, for chewing.

II. Chios was one of the twelve Ionian states founded by the European colonists from Greece; the population, however, that settled there was not pure Ionian, but mixed. In the great sea-fight between the Ionian Greeks and the Persians, B.C. 494, which resulted in the entire defeat of the former, the people of Chios alone furnished one hundred ships, and fought bravely. After the battle, the Persians took possession of the island, which suffered in nearly the same way that it has again suffered in our own times at the hands of the Turks. After the close of the Persian war, B.C. 480, the island passed successively under the dominion of the Athenians, Macedonians, Romans, and Byzantines.

III. Among the places in Chios we may mention, 1. Chios, the chief city, situate on the eastern side, and nearly in the same latitude with Erythræ. Its modern name is Chio, and it is still the chief town in the island. Chios was a large and handsome city, adorned with many noble works of art, several of which were plundered by Verres. The harbor was excellent, and could contain eighty galleys at once. Passing around the promontory of Posidium, now Cape S. Helen, we come to, 2. Phanæ, a harbor and promontory. The latter is now Cape Mastico. The wine of this district was in high repute, and is alluded to by Virgil. 3. Notium, a roadstead, now Port Mastico. 4. Laius Portus, now Port Mesta. Inland, and extending to the north, was the district Ariusia, producing the best wine. 5. Bolissus, toward the northwestern extremity of Chios, mentioned in the pseudo-Life of Homer, and now represented by the village of Volisso.

2. SAMOS.

I. Sămos lay to the southeast of Chios, and a short distance to the northwest of the Trogilian promontory of Ionia. It is now called Samo by the modern Greeks, and by the Turks Sussam-Adassi. Strabo says the word Samos means a mountainous height, and it may therefore be considered as characterizing the physical features of the island, which is traversed by a chain of mountains from one extremity to the other. Samos was celebrated for its extraordinary fertili-

ty, and yielded in abundance almost every product. Its wine, however, was of inferior quality; though, when properly made at the present day, it is said to be very superior. Samos still continues to be one of the most productive islands of the Archipelago.

II. Samos was one of the twelve confederate states of Ionia, and very soon became remarkable for commerce and maritime enterprise. It was particularly distinguished for its ascendency in the time of Polycrates, the most able of the tyrants of his day, who extended his sway over the neighboring states, Lesbos, Miletus, &c., and had a larger fleet than any other Grecian prince or state of his time. After his death, however, the island became a prey to civil dissensions, and fell into the hands of the Persians. It was released from this bondage after the battle of Mycale; but its maritime strength was broken subsequently by Pericles, B.C. 440, who feared in Samos a rival to Athens. During the contest between Mark Antony and Augustus, Samos was for a while the head-quarters of the former and Cleopatra, who kept court here with more than regal magnificence. After Augustus had become the master of the Roman world, he passed a winter in this island, which he restored to its freedom, and conferred on it other marks of favor. This island is particularly distinguished as having given birth to the celebrated Pythagoras.

III. The only place to be mentioned in this island is Samos, the capital, on the southeastern shore, opposite to the Trogilian promontory. The citadel, built by Polycrates, was called Astypalaa. This city stood in a plain, rising gradually from the sea toward a hill situate at some distance from it. The harbor was secure and convenient for ships. Near the suburbs was a temple of Juno, a goddess to whom the whole island was especially sacred, and here, too, the Heræan games, instituted in her honor, were celebrated in the greatest splendor. They were so called from "H ρa , the Greek appellation of the goddess. The ruins of this city are to be seen near Megalochora, the present capital of the island. The promontory of Posidium was a little to the north, facing Mycale, and the distance across to the main land was only seven stadia. In the centre of the island was Mount Ampelus, now Ambelona; and on the western side was Mount Cercetius now Kerki, mentioned by Nicander in his Alexipharmaca.

3. ICARIA.

Icaria, or Icarus, lay to the southwest of Samos. Mythology deduced the name from Icarus, son of Dædalus, whose body was washed upon its shores after the unfortunate termination of his flight. The sea to the south, into which he was fabled to have fallen, was also called from him Mare Icarium. Icaria was of small extent, being long but narrow. In Strabo's time it was thinly inhabited, and the Samians used it principally for the pasturage of cattle. The geographer adds that it possessed no harbors, but only a roadstead or two, the best of which was near a promontory called Isti, in the south. The northeastern point of the island was called the promontory of Dracanum, now Cape Phanari or St. John. Dracanum was also the name of a mountain in this island, where Bacchus, according to some traditions, was said to have been born. Icaria was much celebrated for its wine, especially that called Pramnian. The modern name of the island is Nicaria.

(D.) ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF CARIA.

1. PATMOS, LEROS, CALYMNA, AND COS.

1. Patmos was a small rocky island, below Icaria and Samos. It appears to have had no place which deserved the name of a city; but it became a spot of

some consequence in the early history of the Church, from St. John's having been banished to it, and having there written his Apocalypse. The modern name is Patmo. 2. Leros lay to the southeast of Patmos. It was peopled from Miletus, and probably belonged to that city. Strabo gives its inhabitants a character for dishonesty. The modern name is Lero. 3. Calymna lay to the southeast of Leros. Ovid praises its honey. It is supposed to have belonged to the group which Homer calls Calydna. The modern name is Calimno. 4. Cos, to the southeast, an island of some celebrity. It must have been inhabited at an early period, since Homer represents it as sending its warriors to the siege of Troy. It was subsequently colonized by a party of Dorians, and hence was always reckoned of Dorian origin, and obtained a place in the Triopian Pentapolis. Its chief city was also called Cos, without the walls of which was a celebrated temple of Æsculapius, containing two famous paintings of Apelles, the Antigonus and Venus Anadyomene. Augustus removed the latter to Rome, and remitted to the Coans, as a compensation for the loss, a tribute of one hundred talents. Cos was the birth-place not only of Apelles, but also of the celebrated physician Hippocrates. It was a very productive island, especially in wine, which vied with that of Lesbos and Chios. Cos was likewise celebrated for its purple dye, and for its manufacture of a species of transparent silk stuff, against the use of which by the Romans Juvenal so strongly inveighs. The modern name of the island is Stan-Co.

2. RHODUS.

I. Rhödus, now Rhodes, lay to the south of Caria, and about ten miles from the main land. It is thirty-six miles in length, and about fourteen in breadth. Rhodes was in ancient times sacred to the sun, and was celebrated for its serene sky, its soft climate, fertile soil, and fine fruits. The statement of Pliny, that scarcely a day passed without more or less sunshine, is confirmed by the present inhabitants. Anciently many articles of commerce were exported, which were in much esteem among the Greeks and Romans, in the number of which Pliny and other authors mention dried raisins, saffron, oil, glue, pitch, honey, and wine. The sea supplied every kind of fish. No country, moreover, could boast of having given to the public games of Greece so many successful competitors for the prize.

II. The earliest inhabitants of Rhodes were the Telchines, by whom most probably are meant the Phænicians. Tlepolemus, son of Hercules, subsequently led a colony hither; but the main emigration was that made by the Dorians, who established themselves in this island about B.C. 988, and Rhodes, with its three cities of Lindus, Camirus, and Ialysus, became a part of the Doric confederacy. The history of this island can only be glanced at here. After being originally governed by kings, its constitution was changed to a mixed one, combining the elements of democracy and aristocracy in a balanced state. Its naval power was of gradual growth, and it was frequently brought into collision with foreign powers; but its most rapid rise was after the repulse of Demetrius Poliorcetes, B.C. 303. Subsequently, in the war wagod by the Romans against Antiochus, the Rhodian navy was of great service to the former, who, in gratitude to their new allies, gave the Rhodians Caria and Lycia. From this time, however, the prosperity of the Rhodians began to decline. Her recentlyacquired continental possessions resisted her sway, and in their struggles appealing from time to time to the Roman senate, gave that body an opportunity of practicing their usual policy of interference. After various vicissitudes,

Rhodes was incorporated by Vespasian in a Provincia Insularum, of which it was probably the seat of government.

III. The commercial laws of the Rhodians were very celebrated, and were adopted as the basis of marine law on all the coasts of the Mediterranean, and some fragments of them still retain their authority. In the most flourishing period of the island, the city of Rhodes, like Alexandrea at the same time, was a place of resort for learned men from all countries, and a very similar style of literature sprang up in both places. Rhodes was particularly distinguished as the parent of a new style of oratory, which the ancients considered of a mixed or Græco-Asiatic type.

PLACES IN RHODES.

I. Rhodus, the capital, at the northeastern extremity of the island. It was not so ancient as the three Dorian cities, Lindus, Ialysus, and Camirus, having been founded, according to Strabo, at the time of the Peloponnesian war. The same writer affirms that it excelled all other cities in the beauty and convenience of its ports, which were two in number, its streets, walls, and public edifices. The most extraordinary work, however, at this place, was the famous Colossus of the Sun. It was of bronze, cast by Chares of Lindus, a pupil of Lysippus, and occupied him twelve years. Its height was seventy cubits, or one hundred and five Grecian feet, and few men could encompass the thumb with their arms; the fingers also were thicker than ordinary statues. The cost was three hundred talents (\$317,000), and the money was obtained from the sale of the machines and military engines which Demetrius Poliorcetes had left behind him when he raised the siege of Rhodes. The statue is said, though on no good authority, to have stood with distended legs upon the two moles that formed the entrance of the inner harbor. It was erected B.C. 280, and was regarded as one of the seven wonders of the world. After having stood about fifty-six years, it was broken off below the knees, and thrown down by an earthquake; and it remained in this state for the space of eight hundred and ninety-six years, until, in the year 672 of our era, it was sold by the Saracens to a Jewish merchant of Edessa, who loaded nine hundred camels with the bronze.

II. Lindus, to the south, and on the eastern coast. It was one of the three Dorian cities, and contained a temple of Minerva, of the highest antiquity, since it was said to have been founded by Danaus. The statue of the goddess was a shapeless stone. This city was famous for having produced Cleobūlus, one of the seven sages. It still retains the name of Lindo. Inland from Lindus was Mount Atabyrius. 18. Camīrus, on the opposite side of the island, and in a line with Lindus. Homer gives it the epithet of "chalky." Pisander, the epic poet, was a native of this place. The modern name is Camīro. Near Camīrus was the Mylantia Promontorium, now Cape Candura. 18. Ialīsus, to the northeast, founded at the same time with Lindus and Camīrus. The site, however, had previously been occupied by the Phœnicians. Its citadel, named Ochyrōma, lay on an adjacent hill. The site of this place is still called Ialīso.

(E.) ISLAND OFF THE COAST OF CILICIA. CYPRUS.

I. Cyprus, called by the Turks Kibris, lay off the coast of Cilicia, and a short distance to the west of Syria. Its length is one hundred and forty miles, its greatest breadth is about fifty miles. A range of mountains runs through the

island in the direction of its length, keeping closer to the northern than the southern coast; the plains are consequently on the south side of the range. This range was called *Olympus* by the ancients. Cyprus yielded to no other island in fertility, since it produced excellent wine and oil, and abundance of wheat, and various fruits. There was also a great supply of timber for building ships. Its mineral productions were likewise very rich, especially copper, found at Tamasus, and supposed to be alluded to in the Odyssey.

II. Cyprus appears to have been colonized by the Phænicians at an early period. . Ethiopians are also mentioned as forming part of the population; but it is difficult to say exactly who are designated under this name; probably some of the tribes south of Egypt, who were taken to Cyprus as slaves, after it came into the possession of the Egyptians. Greek colonies subsequently settled on the coast. Amasis, king of Egypt, is said to have invaded Cyprus and taken Citium. The island became subject to the Persians, and afterward submitted to Alexander the Great, upon whose death it fell with Egypt to the share of Ptolemy, son of Lagus. It continued under the Ptolemies, sometimes united with Egypt, and sometimes under a separate prince of the same dynasty. The last of these princes, brother to Ptolemy Apletes, king of Egypt, incurred the enmity of P. Clodius Pulcher, who, being taken prisoner by the Cilician pirates, sent to the king of Cyprus for money to pay his ransom. The king sent a sum which was too little. Clodius, having recovered his liberty by other means, obtained a decree, when he became tribune of the commons, for reducing Cyprus to a Roman province. M. Cato was sent to take possession of it. The king, on hearing of this design, put himself to death, before Cato's arrival. Cato seized upon the treasury, which was well filled, and sent a large booty to Rome. Cyprus thus became a Roman province.

III. Cyprus was deemed sacred to Venus, and, as might be anticipated from the worship and rites of this goddess, the inhabitants were sensual and corrupt. Nevertheless, literature and the arts flourished here to a considerable extent, even at an early period, as the name of the *Cypria Carmina*, ascribed by some, though erroneously, to Homer, sufficiently attests.

PLACES IN CYPRUS.

COMMENCING with the Acamas Promontorium, at the western extremity, now Cape Amant or Salizano, and which is formed by the termination of a ridge called Acamantis, connected with the main one of Olympus, we pass southward, by the promontory of Drepanum, now Cape Trepano, and come to, 1. Păphos, sacred to Venus, and said to have been founded by Agapenor, an Arcadian chief, who was driven hither by a storm on his return from Troy. Having been nearly overthrown by an earthquake, it was restored by Augustus, and named Augusta. It was the seat of government when the island was visited by St. Paul. The site is still called Baffo. 2. Palæ-Paphos, a short distance to the southeast of the former. This was the earlier city of the two, and was said to have been founded by Cinyras, the reputed father of Adonis. It was situate on a height, at a distance of ten stadia from the sea, and near the little river Boccarus, which flowed from the ridge of Acamantis. Like Paphos, it was sacred to Venus, and even after the erection of the former place, retained its pre-eminence in sanctity, and in the annual festival of the goddess the road to it was crowded with her votaries, who resorted here from the other towns. It is said to correspond with the site of Conclia. 3. Curium, to the southeast, founded by an Argive colony. Its sovereign, Stesenor, is stigmatized in history as having betrayed his country's cause during the fight between the Cyprians and

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Persians, toward the close of the Ionian revolt. The site corresponds with the modern Episcopia. The hills in the vicinity contained rich veins of copper ore. The Curias Promontarium is now Cape Gatto. 4. Amäthus, a short distance to the southeast of Curium, and a town of great antiquity. Adonis was worshipped here as well as Venus. Amathus was a favorite residence of the latter, and the goddess was represented here with a beard. Ovid more than once alludes to the mineral productions of Amathus, and Hipponax, as quoted by Strabo, makes it to have been famous for its wheat. Its ruins are near the little town of Limeson or Limasol.

5. Citium, to the east, one of the most ancient towns of the island, and whence the name of Chetim or Chittim is not unreasonably supposed to have been derived. Diogenes Laertius, in his Life of Zeno, makes this place to have been a Phœnician settlement, a circumstance which is confirmed by Cicero. It was celebrated for having given birth to Zeno, the founder of the Stoic sect, and the physician Apollonius. It still retains the name of Chiti. 6. Idălium, a height and grove, the position of which is uncertain. There was also a town of the same name, which is first referred to by the later scholiasts. Lucan would seem to place Idalium on the sea-shore, and, if this be correct, it may have been situated near the promontory of Pedalium, now Cape Pila. Cramer, following D'Anville, places it inland, and makes it answer to the modern Dalin. The Idalian grove was the favorite abode of Venus; and here, too, Adonis was slain by the tusk of the wild boar. 7. Leucolla, now Armida, near the promontory of Ammochostos, now Cape Grego. The ancient name of this cape seems to have been transferred by corruption to the neighboring town of Famagosta, which figures in the modern annals of the island. 8. Salamis, to the northeast, a city of note and of considerable antiquity, said to have been founded by Teucer, son of Telamon, when driven from the island of Salamis by his irritated parent for not having avenged the wrongs of his half-brother Ajax. During the reign of Euagoras it was the principal city of the island, and was the rendezvous of distinguished men from Greece and other countries. Overwhelmed by an earthquake in the time of Constantine, it was restored under the name of Constantia, which it still preserves under the modern form of Constanza. 9. Sŏli, on the northern shore, founded by Demophon, son of Theseus. It derives celebrity from Solon's having resided there some years, at the court of Philocyprus, the reigning prince. According to some, he ended his days there. The inhabitants were called Σόλιοι, while those of Soli in Cilicia were termed Σολείς. The site is now called Solea. 10. Tămăsus, to the southeast, in the interior of the island, celebrated for its rich mines of copper, and the metallic composition prepared on the spot, called calcanthum. Ovid, in his Metamorphoses, alludes to it as the spot where the golden apples grew by which Hippomanes won Atalanta.

II. SYRIA, INCLUDING PHENICIA AND PALESTINE.

SYRIA.

1. Syria (ἡ Συρία) was the Greek and Roman name for that country of Asia which forms the whole or a part of the district called in the Bible Aram. By the Europeans it is still called Syria, but the Asiatics term it Belad et Sham, or "the country to the left." The Mohammedans of Mecca direct their

faces to the rising sun when they pray, and then Syria is to their left.

II. In the most usual application of the word, Syria was the district bounded on the north by the range of Amānus, on the west by the Mediterranean, on the east by the Euphrātes and Arabia, and on the south by Arabia and Egypt. The name Syria is probably a shortened form of Assyria.

III. The Syrians (not including the inhabitants of Phœnicia and Palestine under the name) derived their descent from Aram, the youngest son of Seth. The earliest records represent Syria as consisting of a number of independent kingdoms. The conquests of David brought these into subjection to the kingdom of Israel; but they again became independent at the close of Solomon's reign B.C. 975. The kingdom of Damascus became by degrees especially powerful. This kingdom was overthrown by the Assyrians, and from this time Syria formed in succession a part of the Assyrian, Bablyonian, Persian, and Macedonian empires. After the battle of Ipsus (B.C. 301), Syria, with the exception of Cœle-Syria and Palestine, fell to the share of Seleucus Nicator, and henceforth it became the central portion of the kingdom of the Seleucidæ, its capital being Antiochia. It was declared a Roman province by Pompey in the vear 65 B.C.

IV. The situation of Syria is peculiar. This country may be regarded as an isthmus, separating a sea of water (the Mediterranean) from a sea of sand (the desert of Arabia). It was well watered by numerous small streams; but the only large river was the *Orontes* or *Axius*, now the *Aasi*, rising in Mount Libānus, and flowing from south to north. The products of ancient Syria were corn, fruits of various kinds, oil, wine, cedar wood from Libanus, fuller's earth, &c.

V. Under the Macedonian kings Syria was divided into four parts or tetrarchies, which were named after their capitals, Antiochīa, Seleucīa, Apamēa, and Laodicēa. Both the Greeks and Romans, however, called the northern part of Syria, that is, the whole of the country with the exception of Cœle-Syria, Phœnicia, and Palestine, by the general name of Upper Syria (ἡ ἄνω Συρία, Syria Superior), to distinguish it from Cæle-Syria (ἡ κοίλη Συρία) or Hollow Syria, which was the name given to the valley between the ridges of Libānus and Antilib-

anus. Under the Romans, Upper Syria was divided into nine districts, namely, Cassiotis, Apamēne, Chalcidīce, Seleucis, Pieria, Commagēne, Cyrrhestice, Chalybonītis, and Palmyrēne.

PLACES IN UPPER SYRIA.

I. District of Cassiotis.—This lay below the mouth of the Orontes, and took its name from Mount Casius, now Jebel Okrab. The ancients give exaggerated accounts of the height of this mountain, that the rising sun could be seen from it at the beginning of the fourth night-watch. It is, however, only five thousand three hundred and eighteen feet above the level of the sea. On its summit was a celebrated temple of Jupiter Casius, in which several Roman emperors sacrificed. In this district we may mention, 1. Gabăla, with a harbor, and the remains of an amphitheatre; now Jebili. It is the Giblim of Joshua (xiii., 5). 2. Laodicēa ad Mare, to the north, so named to distinguish it from Laodicea ad Libanum. It was built by Seleucus Nicator in honor of his mother. The adjacent territory was celebrated for its wine. This place was greatly beautified by the Emperor Severus, after Pescennius Niger had laid it waste. It is now Latikia.

II. District of Apamēne, to the southeast of Cassiotis, and along the course of the Orontes. We have here, 1. Emesa, near a lake formed by the Orontes. and celebrated for its temple of Elagabalus, or the Sun-god, whose young priest became, under the same name, emperor of Rome. The sun was worshipped here under the shape of a black round stone, rising to a point. In later times it was the capital of the new province of Phanicia Libani. It was here that the great battle was fought between the Emperor Aurelian and Zenobia, queen of Palmyra. The modern name is Hems. 2. Epiphanīa, to the northwest, on the Orontes. It is the Hamath of the Bible. The modern name is Hamah. In the Middle Ages it was the seat of an Arabian dynasty, to which Abulfeda the geographer belonged. 3. Apamēa, the capital, and giving name to the district, situate on the Orontes, to the northwest. It was founded by Antigonus, and first called Pella, from the birth-place of Alexander, a name which Seleucus Nicator changed to Apamea in honor of his queen Apama. Seleucus is said to have kept five hundred war elephants in the adjacent pastures. It is now Kalaat el Medyk, or Famieh. 4. Seleucia ad Belum, to the northwest, near Mount Belus, and on the Orontes. It was afterward called Seleucopolis. It is probably the modern Sehjun. 5. Antiochia, to the northwest, on the Orontes, now Antioch or Antakia. It was founded by Seleucus Nicator, and intended as the capital not only of Syria, but even of all Asia. He called it Antiochia after his father Antiochus, and transplanted hither the inhabitants of the neighboring city of Antigonia, which had been founded by his opponent Antigonus. It was afterward increased by the addition of three other cities, each with its separate walls, and having a common one inclosing all; so that in Strabo's time Rome was regarded as the first, Seleucia ad Tigrim as the second, and this Antiochia and Alexandrea in Egypt as the third in rank among the cities of the known world. Antiochia was subsequently destroyed by Chosroes, king of Persia, but restored by Justinian, if not to its former size, at least to its original splendor. Having been again ravaged by the Egyptian sultan in A.D. 1269, it sunk into the present wretched town of Antakia. Antioch is intimately connected with the early history of Christianity, the doctrines of which were planted in it by

Paul and Barnabas, and in it also the term Christian had its origin as a distinctive appellation. Hence Antioch was sometimes called, from this circumstance, Theopolis, or the Sacred City. About five miles below Antioch was a delightful grove, with refreshing fountains, and a temple sacred to Apollo and Diana. The name of the place was Daphne, whence Antioch is sometimes called, for distinction' sake, Antiochia ad Daphnen.

III. District of Chalcidice, to the north of Apamene, and east of the Orontes. It took its name from Chalcis, the capital, situate on a lake formed by the River Chalus, to the southwest of Berœa. Chalcis was not a place of much importance, although greatly beautified by the Emperor Justinian. The adjacent territory was extremely fruitful. Its ruins are near the modern Kinnasrin.

IV. District of Seleucis, north of the mouth of the Orontes, and taking its name from its capital Seleucia. This city lay on a mountain ridge, near the shore, and about a mile from the Orontes. It was built originally by Seleucus Nicator as an impregnable fort, and having bravely defended itself subsequently against Tigranes, king of Armenia, was declared a free city by Pompey. Seleucus was buried here. Its ruins are near Kepse. Besides this place we may name Imma, to the east, where Aurelian gained his first victory over Zenobia. It answers now to Cuph.

V. District of Piĕria, lying on the Sinus Issĕeus, and reaching on the north to the Syriæ Pylæ. It took its name from Mount Pierius, a chain branching off to the south from Amanus. We may mention here, 1. Rhosus, now Rozos. 2. Pagræ, just below the Syrian pass. Myriandrus and Alexandrea have already been mentioned under the head of Cilicia, to which they more properly belong.

VI. District of Commagene, the northernmost division of Syria, of small extent, but extremely fertile. We may mention in it, 1. Samosăta, the capital, and residence of the early petty kings, situate on the western bank of the Euphrates. It was the birth-place of Lucian, and of Paul the heretic. It is now Schemisath. 2. Adata, near Mount Amanus; afterward called Germanicea, and by the Romans Germanicea Casarea, in honor of the Emperor Caligula. At a still later period it was called Telesaura, and is now Marah. It was the birth-place of the heretic Nestorius. It was here that Pescennius Niger assumed the imperial dignity. 3. Antiochia ad Taurum, in the northwestern angle of Amanus. Probably the modern frontier fortress of Bahasna.

VII. District of Cyrrhestice, named after a district in Macedonia. It extended from the plain of Antioch eastward to the Euphrates. We may name here, 1. Zeugma, the general place for crossing the Euphrates after the time of Alexander; near the modern Bir, which, on the opposite side of the river, answers to Birtha or Seleucia. In more ancient times the crossing was usually made at Thapsacus, lower down. 2. Hierapolis, or the Holy City, so called from the great Syrian goddess Derceto or Atargatis being highly revered here. She had in this city a splendid temple, the treasury of which was rifled by Crassus in his Parthian expedition. At the introduction of Christianity it lost all its splendor. Its Syrian name was Mabog, or "the city of cotton," from the cotton cultivated abundantly in its vicinity. Out of this name the Greeks made their appellation of Bambyce (ή Βαμβύκη), which they also employed, together with that of Hierapolis. It is now Mambej. 3. Beraa, to the southwest, called by the Syrians Chalep, which latter name still remains in the modern Aleppo, the most important town of modern Syria. Here was the River Chalus, already referred to, now the Kovaik, anciently full of sacred fish. 4. Cyrrhus, to the north, the capital of the district, with a temple of Minerva Cyrrhestica.

VIII. District of Chalybonītis, anciently a fertile strip of country on the west bank of the Euphrates, between the river and the Syrian desert, but now swallowed up by the sands of the latter. We may mention here, 1. Barbalissus, a castle on the Euphrates, now Balis, less correctly placed by D'Anville on the Daradax. 2. Resăpha, to the southeast, afterward Sergiopolis; now El-Ressafa. 3. Thapsacus, to the southeast, a celebrated city and fording-place on the Euphrates, and the Thaphsach of Scripture, a name denoting "a passage." Seleucus Nicator subsequently gave the city the name of Amphipolis. The Syriac name is said to have been Turmeda. This was the most usual ford or crossing place of the Euphrates for those going into Upper Asia, and here the army of the younger Cyrus crossed, as related by Xenophon. Here, also, at a subsequent period, the immense host of Darius Codomannus passed over, when marching into Lower Asia against Alexander, as well as the army of the latter when moving upward after the battle of Issus. Eratosthenes, moreover, chose this place for the centre of his measures of Asia. The site of Thapsacus is nearly opposite the modern Racca. Geographers generally err in removing it to El-Der.

IX. District of Palmyrene, to the south, once partially irrigated and cultivated, now, however, forming a portion of the desert. It derived its name from its capital Palmyra. This celebrated city was situated about midway between the Orontes and Euphrates, and about one hundred and forty miles E.N.E. of Damascus, in an oasis supplied with wholesome water, and on a line leading from the coast of Syria to the regions of Mesopotamia, Persia, and India. The Phoenicians were probably early acquainted with the spot, as a convenient halting place in the desert, and are thought to have suggested to Solomon the idea of building an emporium there. That monarch accordingly built "Tadmor in the wilderness." This Tadmor is the same as Palmyra, both names being derived from the palm-trees which grew here in abundance. In the time of Pliny, Palmyra was the intermediate emporium of the trade with the east, a city of merchants and factors, who traded with the Parthians on the one hand and the Romans on the other. The produce of India found its way to the Roman world through this city. Palmyra became allied to the Roman empire as a free state, and continued to be a splendid and flourishing city until the defeat of its aspiring Queen Zenobia by the Emperor Aurelian. It was on this occasion that the celebrated Longinus, her minister, was put to death. Zenobia herself was led captive to Rome, and was allowed to spend the remainder of her days near the town of Tibur. Palmyra still continued to exist, though shorn of much of its former splendor, until plundered and destroyed in A.D. 1400 by the army of Tamerlane. Since that period it has been in a ruined and desolate state, but its remains are described by travellers as exceedingly imposing.

CŒLE-SYRIA.

I. Cæle-Syria (ἡ κοίλη Συρία), or "Hollow Syria," comprised the valley betwen the mountain chains of Libānus and Antilibānus. The name took its rise under the Seleucidæ; for in earlier times it formed part of the kingdom of Damascus; then, under David and Solomon, a part of the kingdom of Israel; and from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander the Great, a part of the Persian monarchy. Under the later Roman emperors the name was no longer used, this country being incorporated

as a province with *Phænicia Libani*. Cæle-Syria is now called *El-Bakaah*, or "the Valley." Its average width is fifteen miles.

II. Libanus separated Cœle-Syria from Phænicia, and extended in a direction east of north from a little below the parallel of Tyrus nearly up to that of Aradus. It abounded anciently in excellent pastures, and fine forests of cedar. A few spots in the range still afford good pasturage at the present day, but the cedars, "the glory of Lebanon," have nearly all disappeared. The name Libanus is derived from an Oriental root, signifying "white," the reference being not only to the snowy summits of the chain, but also to the whitish complexion of the calcareous soil. Libanus is now called Jebel Libnah, but more commonly, among the natives, Jebel esh-Sharki, or "the Western Mountain," in contradistinction to Antilibanus, which is styled Jebel el-Gharbi, or "the Eastern Mountain." range of Antilibanus lay to the east of, and, as its name imports, "opposite to Libanus," though commencing much farther to the south. Nearly opposite to Damascus, this chain separates into two ridges, the easternmost one of which is the Hermon of Scripture, now Jebel esh-Sheikh, or "the Chief's Mountain." In Scripture, the name Lebanon is applied indifferently to both Libanus and Antilibanus.

PLACES IN CŒLE-SYRIA.

1. Damascus (the Dammesek of Scripture), at the foot of the range of Antilibanus, in a beautiful and extensive plain, watered by the Bardines or Chrysorrhoas and its branches. This river is thought to be the Pharphar of the Bible. Damascus is one of the most ancient cities in the world, and existed as early as the days of Abraham; and, though often taken and devastated, it has always risen again and flourished. Under Dioclesian several manufactories of arms were established here, and it is probable that the high reputation to which it afterward attained for its sword-blades may have had its first foundations laid in this arrangement of the Roman emperor. Damascus was also made at this time a general depôt for munitions of war, and a military post against the inroads of the eastern nations. . Under Julian it became a magnificent city; and in the seventh century it was for some time the seat of the califs. All modern travellers speak of its delightful situation. The natives call it Es-Sham, or Syria, according to the practice of designating the chief town by the name of the country itself. 2. Heliopölis, to the northwest, called by the Syrians Baalbec, and now Balbec. The Syriac name is supposed to mean "the city (or house) of Baal," of which the Greek Heliopolis is a mere translation. By Baal, in Asiatic idolatry, was originally meant the Lord of the Universe, of whom the Sun was subsequently taken as the type. Heliopolis was famed for its temple of Jupiter erected by Antoninus Pius, magnificent ruins of which still remain.

Venus was also revered in this city, and its maidens were therefore said to be the fairest in the land. By Venus is here meant the Syrian Astarte. 3. $Aph\bar{\alpha}ca$, to the northwest, in the mountain range of Libanus, having a celebrated temple of Venus (Astarte), near which was a lake, the waters of which had the property of keeping even the heaviest bodies, when thrown therein, from sinking. The temple was destroyed by Constantine the Great. The ruins of the city are at a place called Afka. 4. $Laodic\bar{c}a$ ad Libanum, to the northeast, founded by Seleucus Nicator. It lay in the plain watered by and named after the River Marsyas, a tributary of the Orontes. The Romans made it the chief city of the district. It was also called Laodicea Scabiosa ($\Sigma \kappa abi\omega \sigma a$), for which Ptolemy gives $Kabi\omega \sigma a$ (Cabiosa).

PHŒNICIA.

I. Phænicia, in Greek Φοινίκη (Phænīce), extended along the coast of Syria, from the River Eleuthĕrus, and the city and island of Arādus, on the north, to the River Chorseus, near Cæsarea, at the foot of Mount Carmel, in the south. The length, therefore, was only thirty-five geographical miles. The breadth was very limited, the mountain range of Libanus forming its utmost barrier to the east. The country was in general sandy and hilly, and not well adapted for agriculture, but, to counterbalance this, the coast abounded in good harbors, the fisheries were excellent, while the mountain ranges in the interior afforded, in their cedar-forests, a rich supply of timber for naval and other purposes. Hence the early proficiency which the Phænicians made in navigation, and hence the flourishing commercial cities which covered the whole line of coast.

II. The native name of Phœnicia, as appears from the Phœnician coinage, was Kenaan (the Canaan of Scripture), and the people themselves were called Kenaanim. The name Phænicia or Phænice is of Grecian, not Oriental origin, and was given by the Greeks to this country either from the number of palmtrees (φοίνιξ, "a palm-tree") which grew there, so that Phænicia will signify "the land of palms," or else, as Gesenius thinks, from φοίνιξ, in its sense of "purple," making Phænicia therefore mean "the land of the purple dye," in allusion to the famous purple or crimson of Tyre.

SKETCH OF PHENICIAN HISTORY.

I. The Phoenicians were a branch of the Araman or Semitic race. To this same great family the Hebrews and Arabians belonged, as well as the inhabitants of the wide plain between the northern waters of the Euphrates and Tigris. The Phoenicians themselves, according to their own account, came originally from the shores of the Persian Gulf; and Strabo informs us, that in the isles of Tyrus and Aradus, in the gulf just named, were found temples similar to those

of the Phænicians; and that the inhabitants of these isles claimed the cities of Tyrus and Aradus, on the coast of Phænicia, as colonies of theirs.

II. It is uncertain what time they migrated to the coast of the Mediterranean, but it must have been at a very early period, since Sidon was a great city in the time of Joshua. The Phænicians far surpassed all the other nations of antiquity in commercial enterprise. Their greatness as a commercial people was chiefly owing to their peculiar natural advantages. Their situation at the extremity of the Mediterranean enabled them to supply the western nations with the different commodities of the east, which were brought to Tyre by caravans from Arabia and Babylon; while their own country produced many of the most valuable articles of commerce in ancient times. Off the coast the shell-fish was caught which produced the purple, the most celebrated dye known to the ancients; and the sand on the sea-shore was well adapted for the making of glass. Mount Libanus supplied them with abundance of timber for ship-building, and the useful metals were obtained in the iron and copper mines of Sarepta.

III. In the west they visited not only Britain for tin, but also the shores of the Baltic for amber; and on the northern coast of Africa, in Spain, Sicily, and Malta, thy planted numerous colonies, which they supplied with the produce of the East. Their settlements in Sicily and Africa became powerful states, and long opposed a formidable barrier to the Roman armies. By their alliance with the Jewish state in the time of Solomon, they were enabled to sail to Ophir, where they obtained the produce of India. Herodotus even says that they circumnavigated Africa.

IV. The Greeks attributed the invention of letters to the Phænicians. There can be no doubt, however; that they attained to great perfection in the arts in very early times. The Tyrians supplied Solomon with all kinds of artificers to assist in the building of the temple at Jerusalem; and the workmanship of the artists of Sidon was celebrated in the Greek towns of Asia Minor as early as the time of Homer.

V. The Phœnician cities appear to have been originally independent of one another, and to have possessed, for the most part, a monarchical form of government. The oldest of these cities was Sidon; but Tyre became in later times the most important, and probably exercised some degree of authority over the other states. After the conquest of Samaria and Judæa, the Phœnicians became subject in succession to the Assyrian, Babylonian, and Persian monarchies. In the wars between the Greeks and Persians, they formed the chief and most efficient portion of the Persian navy. They afterward became part of the dominions of the Seleucidæ, and were eventually included in the Roman province of Syria. The language of the Phœnicians closely resembled the Hebrew and Aramaic.

PLACES IN PHŒNICIA.

PROCEEDING upward from the mouth of the Chorseus, now the Koradsche, we come to, 1. Dōra or Dorus, the Dor of Scripture, a small place with a harbor, now Tortura. 2. Echatěna, at the foot of Mount Carmel, the same probably with the Bathura of Josephus, and now Caiffa. Here Cambyses gave himself a mortal wound as he was mounting his horse, and thus fulfilled the oracle which had warned him to beware of Echatana, and which he had supposed to refer to the capital of Media. 3. Sycaminon, to the north, so called from its abundance of wild fig-trees. The Syriac name was Chepha. It is now Kaifa or Kaffa. Near this place, and at the foot of Mount Carmel, the shell-fish from which purple was obtained were found in abundance. Mount Carmel, which

consists rather of several connected hills than of one ridge, extends from the plain of Esdraelon in a northwest direction, and terminates in the Carmelum Promontorium, the only great promontory on the coast of Palestine, and which forms the S.W. extremity of the bay of Acre. Above the promontory the River Kison enters the bay, on the banks of which stream the host of Sisera was overthrown. 4. Ptolemais, at the upper extremity of the bay. The native name of this place was Accho, which the Greeks changed into Acc ("A $\kappa\eta$), but it was eventually better known by the name of Ptolemais, which it had received from the first Ptolemy, king of Egypt, by whom it was much improved. It was called, also, Colonia Claudii Casaris, in consequence of its receiving the privileges of a Roman city from the Emperor Claudius. It is now the well-known St. Jean d'Acre. The River Belus here empties into the sea, from the fine sands of which stream, according to the common account, the first glass was accidentally made by some Phænician mariners. 5. Tyrus, called by the natives Tsor, by the Greeks Tipog. The Carthaginians, colonists of Tyre, called the mother city, on the other hand, Tsar or Sar, which the Romans, receiving the word from them, converted into Sarra, and formed from it the adjective Sarranus, equivalent to Tyrius. Tyre was founded by a colony from Sidon, the most ancient of the Phænician cities, but its splendid prosperity soon caused it to take precedence of the parent state, and to eclipse its glory. It became, in fact, the first commercial city of its time. Originally the city of Tyre was built on the main land, but, having been besieged for a lengthened period by Nebuchadnezzar, the inhabitants conveyed themselves and their effects to an island about half a mile from the shore, where a new city was founded, which enjoyed an increased degree of celebrity and commercial prosperity. The old city hence was called Palatyrus, the other simply Tyrus. The new city continued to flourish, extending its colonies and commerce on all sides, till it was attacked by Alexander the Great. After an obstinate resistance it was taken, and severely punished. Still, however, the city continued to flourish, until the founding of Alexandrea, by diverting commerce into a new channel, gave Tyre an irreparable blow, and she gradually declined, until now hardly a vestige remains. above Tyrus the River Leontes, now Lanto, empties into the sea.

6. Sarepta or Zarephath, where Elijah performed the miracle of multiplying the contents of the barrel of meal and cruse of oil, and where he raised the widow's son to life. It is now Surafend. 7. Sidon, one of the most ancient cities of Phænicia, with an excellent harbor, and already extant in the time of Jacob. Sidon was the parent city of Tyre, and of most of the towns of Phænicia. Many manufactories, particularly those of linen and glass, were successfully carried on here. Notwithstanding the rise and prosperity of Tyre, it remained a very wealthy and important city to the time of its conquest by Artaxerxes Ochus, when its fleet amounted to one hundred triremes and quinqueremes. In Alexander's time it was without any fortifications, and preserved scarcely any thing but its reputation for fine glass. It is now the small town of Sayda, and its harbor is nearly choked up with sand. 8. Berytus, the Berotha of Scripture, called also Colonia Felix Julia in the time of Augustus, who made it a Roman colony, and named it thus in honor of his daughter Julia. In the age of Justinian it became a famous school of law. The modern appellation is Beirout. 9. Byblus, on a height at some distance from the coast. Adonis, or the sun-god, was worshipped here with peculiar honors, under the name of Thammuz. Just below this place was the River Adonis, now Nahr Ibrahim. At the anniversary of the death of Adonis, which was in the rainy season, its waters were tinged red with the ochrous particles from Mount Libanus, and hence were

fabled to flow with his blood. 10. $Tr\check{p}\check{p}lis$, now Tarabolus. It derived its name from Tyre, Sidon, and Aradus having established here, in common, a triple town ($\tau \rho e i \epsilon_r \pi \acute{o} \lambda e \iota \epsilon_r$), each with its own walls and colonists, as a place of assembly for their States-General. Tripolis had a good harbor and extensive commerce. At the present day the sand has so accumulated that the town is separated from the sea by a small triangular plain, at the apex of which is a village where vessels land their goods. 11. Arca, called subsequently $Casar\~ea$, the birth-place of the Emperor Alexander Severus. 12. $Ar\~adus$, on a small island near the shore; now Ruad. It was founded, according to Strabo, by a band of exiles from Sidon. 13. $Antar\~adus$, called also Constantia, after the Emperor Constantius. It is now Tortosa, with a small harbor.

PALÆSTINA.

I. Palæstina, or Palestine, derived that name from the Philistæi, or Philistines, who occupied the southwestern coast, and belonged to the same stem with the Phænicians. As it was, however, the promised inheritance of the descendants of Abraham, and the scene of the birth, sufferings, and death of our Redeemer, we are accustomed to designate it by the more religious appellation of the Holy Land.

II. Palestine was bounded on the north by Cæle-Syria, on the northwest by Phænicia, on the west by the Mediterranean, called in the Bible the Great Sea, on the east by Arabia Deserta, and on the south by Arabia Petræa.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.

I. Palestine is a very mountainous country. The range of Antilibanus, as we have before remarked, divides into two branches nearly opposite Damascus. These branches continue their course to the south, nearly parallel to each other, and inclose between them the valley of the Jordan and its lakes. They afterward diverge from each other at the head of the *Elanites Sinus*, or Gulf of *Akaba*; the one running along the eastern coast of that gulf, and terminating on the shores of the Red Sea; the other along the western coast of that gulf, and terminating in the mountains of Sinai. As the range of Antilibanus passes into Palestine, it diminishes in height, and becomes less rugged and more fit for tillage; but at the Dead Sea it consists of desolate rocks.

II. Almost all the mountains of Palestine may be regarded as belonging to the two principal ranges which inclose the basin of the Jordan. The most remarkable are the following: 1. Mons Itabyrius, the Tabor of Scripture, the highest mountain in Lower Galilee, on the northeast of the plain of Esdraelon. It is entirely detached from the surrounding mountains, and nearly hemispherical in shape. On its summit is a plain of about half an hour in circuit, inclosed by an ancient wall. This mountain is said by an old tradition to have been the scene of our Savior's transfiguration. 2. Hermon Minor, or the Little Hermon, a range of fertile hills, about five miles S.S.W. of Tabor, and not to be confounded with the great ridge of the same name in Antilibanus. 3. Mons Gilboa, the Gilboa of Scripture, a sterile range of hills to the south and southeast of Tabor. They bound the valley of the Jordan on the west for many miles, and are about one thousand feet above the level of the sea. 4. Mons Carmēlus, already men-

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tioned under the head of Phœnicia. 5. Montes Samariæ, the Mountains of Samaria, to the south of the plain of Esdraelon. Of these the highest are those of Ebal and Gerizim, separated from each other by a valley two or three hundred paces broad. From these two mountains were delivered the curses and blessings of the Law. The Samaritans had their temple on Mount Gerizim, which they esteemed the holiest of mountains. 6. In the eastern part of Judæa, on the borders of the Jordan and the Dead Sea, is a wilderness of mountains, the most rugged and desolate in all Palestine. This mountainous country, which is the highest in Judæa, bears the name of Quarantania, from a tradition that this was the wilderness in which Christ fasted forty days and forty nights. The most mountainous part of Judæa is the district round Jerusalem.

III. The most important river of Palestine was the Jordanes, or Jordan, now called by the Arabs Sheriat el-Kebir. Its true source is in the neighborhood of the modern Hasbeiya, twenty miles above Banias, the ancient Casarēa Philippi. The river, according to Lieutenant Lynch, here gushes forth in a copious stream from beneath a bold perpendicular rock. What has been called the second source of the Jordan is a fountain at Tell el-Kady, sixteen or eighteen miles south of Hasbeiya, and where stood the city Dan, more anciently Laish. The Jordan first ran into the Lake Samochonitis, called in Scripture "the waters of Merom," and now Bahr el-Huleh. After leaving this lake it flows on for about twelve miles, and then enters the Sea of Tiberias or Lake of Gennesareth, through which its course may be distinctly traced in a smooth current. Emerging from this body of water, it pursues a very rapid and winding route to the Dead Sea, where its course terminates. The depression between the Sea of Tiberias and the Dead Sea is said to be over one thousand feet, and the secret of this depression is solved, according to Lieutenant Lynch, by the tortuous course of the Jordan. In a distance of about sixty miles, from the former to the latter sea, this river winds along through a course of about two hundred miles; and within that distance Lieutenant Lynch and his party plunged down no less than twenty-seven threatening rapids, besides many others of less descent. An average fall of only a little more than five feet in each mile will account for the great difference of level just alluded to. It has been generally thought that the Jordan continued its course to the Red Sea through the valley of Mount Seir, until it was checked by the convulsions attending the overthrow of Sodom and Gomorrah. This opinion, though strenuously opposed by some modern travellers, is undoubtedly the true one.

IV. The principal lakes or inland seas in Palestine are the following: 1. Lacus Samochonītis, already alluded to. Its size varies with the season of the year, but is, on an average, about seven miles in length, and about half that number in breadth. The reeds which are used for writing grow on its margin. 2. Mare Tiberiadis, or Sea of Tiberias, called in Scripture the Lake of Gennesareth or Sea of Galilee. The name Gennesareth is supposed to be a corruption of Cinneroth, which latter was a town lying on its western border. The name Tiberias comes from that of the city of Tiberias, on the southwestern shore. This lake is from twelve to fifteen miles long, and from six to nine miles wide. It is surrounded by mountains, and the scenery is exceedingly beautiful. 3. Lacus Asphaltites, called also Mare Mortuum, and commonly, by us, "the Dead Sea." The name Asphaltites comes from the bitumen $(\alpha\sigma\phi\alpha\lambda\tau\sigma\varsigma)$ occasionally found floating on its surface, or picked up on its shores. It is called the Dead Sea from the desolation prevailing along its shores, as well as from the belief that no living creature can exist in its waters. In Scripture it is termed "the Sea of the Plain," and also "the Salt Sea" and "the East Sea." The Arabs call it Bahr

Lut. or "the Sea of Lot." This remarkable piece of water occupies the site of the plain of Siddim, where stood Sodom and the other cities which God destroyed by fire in the time of Lot. It is of an irregular oblong figure, and, according to modern measurement, about forty miles long and eight miles broad. The waters and the surrounding soil are so intensely impregnated with salt and sulphur that no trees or plants grow on its banks, and it is said to contain no fish, though this last has been doubted by some. It is certain, however, that its waters, when examined by a powerful microscope, have been found to contain no animalculæ or animal matter whatever. The taste of the water is extremely nauseous, and, in consequence of its saltness, it possesses very buoyant properties. This sea has very recently been explored by Lieutenant Lynch, of the American navy, and accurate soundings taken throughout. These investigations have led to the conclusion that the bottom of this sea consists of two submerged plains, an elevated and a depressed one, the former averaging thirteen, the latter thirteen hundred feet below the surface. The shallow portion is to the south; the deeper, which is also the larger one, to the north. This southern and shallow portion would appear to have been originally the fertile plain of Siddim, in which the guilty cities stood.

SITUATION OF THE TRIBES WHEN SETTLED UNDER JOSHUA.

The largest portion was that of Judah, along the western side of the Lake Asphaltites; and west of Judah was Simeon, bordering on the Philistines, who occupied the Mediterranean coast. North of Judah was the smaller tribe of Benjamin, in which was Jerusalem; and west of Benjamin the still smaller tribe of Dan, reaching partly to the coast, having the Philistines partly to the south, and also on the sea-shore. Above Dan and Benjamin was a considerable district from the coast to the Jordan, the portion of Ephraim; above Ephraim, extending in a like manner, was half the tribe of Manassch. The coast then became that of Phanicia, along which, but rather inland, lay the tribe of Asher. Above Manasseh lay the tribe of Issacchar; and above Issacchar, and to the southeast of Asher, was the tribe of Zabulon. The whole northwestern coast of the Sea of Tiberias, and the country along the western bank of the Jordan, was occupied The whole eastern side of the Jordan, and the country to the east of the Sea of Tiberias, down to the southern extremity of that sea, belonged to the other half-tribe of Manassch; below it was Gad, reaching about half way between the two lakes; and below it Reuben, reaching to the plains of Moab, at the northeastern corner of the Lake Asphaltites. These two tribes and a half were the first settled, though their warriors crossed over Jordan to assist their brethren in subduing the Canaanites on the western side.

MAIN DIVISIONS OF PALESTINE.

In the time of the New Testament, this country was divided into Judæa, Samaria, and Galilæa or Galilee. Of these, Judæa occupied the southern portion, Samaria the central, and Galilee the northern one. We shall consider them in succession, omitting any preliminary remarks on Jewish History, which ought to be familiar to all.

JUDÆA.

Judea, the most southern and important province, comprised the lands of the tribes of Judah, Simeon, Dan, and the territory of the Philistines. It was bounded on the west by the *Mediterranean*, from *Raphia* in the south, to *Joppa* in the north; on the north by *Samaria*; on the east by the *Jordan* and the Lake *Asphaltites*; and on the south by a line drawn westward from the lower part of that lake to Raphia. To this territory was likewise added a part of the south of Samaria, comprising the three districts of *Acrabatene*, *Gophnitica*, and *Thamnitica*.

PLACES IN JUDEA.

On the coast, proceeding from north to south, we have, 1. Joppa (in Hebrew Japho), the only harbor of the Jews, and a place of no great importance. In heathen mythology, the scene of the fable of Andromeda and Perseus was laid here. It is now Jaffa. 2. Jamnia (the Jabneh of Scripture), the northernmost city of the Philistæi, taken by King Uzziah. A college of Jews was established here after the destruction of Jerusalem. 3. Gath, to the southeast, one of the five principal cities of the Philistæi, and supposed to be the native place of Goliath. It must have been possessed of great resources, from its frequent withstanding of the power of Jerusalem. 4. Ekron, called subsequently Akkaron, the chief of the five great cities of the Philistæi, and remarkable in connection with the capture of the ark by the enemies of Israel. It is frequently mentioned, also. at a later day, in the history of the crusades. The modern village of Akir is thought to answer to it. 5. Azōtus, in Scripture Aschdod, another of the five chief cities of the Philistæi, and where the god Dagon was worshipped. It was not conquered by the Jews till the reign of Solomon. In the time of King Hezekiah it was taken by the Assyrians; and subsequently by Psammitichus, king of Egypt, after a siege of twenty-nine years. It is now represented by the village of Esdud. 6. Ascălon, another of the five cities where Derceto was worshipped. Herod the Great was born here, and hence received the appellation of Ascalonites. This city exported great quantities of eschalots to England and Rome. It is frequently mentioned in the history of the Crusades. The town of Askalan now represents it. 7. Gaza, a strong border-city, situate some distance inland, but having an excellent port called Majumas. It was the frontier fortress against Egypt. Alexander took it after a siege of two months, but came very near losing his life. Constantine subsequently called the port Constantia. Gaza was famous for its wine, which in the sixth century was exported to Europe. The Arabic name of the place, at the present day, is Ghuzzeh. 8. Gerar or Gerara, to the southeast, the seat of the first Philistine kingdom of which we read. 9. Raphia, a frontier station, in the desert, to the southwest, where Ptolemy IV. of Egypt gained a great victory over Antiochus.

Inland, commencing at the north, we have, 1. Antipatris, founded by Herod the Great, and named in honor of his father Antipater. The site had been previously occupied by a place called Capharsaba. It is not the modern Arsuf, as has commonly been supposed, but more probably the village Kaffr Suba.

2. Timnath Serah, to the southeast, selected by Joshua for his place of burial.

3. Shiloh, to the east, where Joshua set up the tabernacle, and made the last

and general division of the land among the tribes. The ark and tabernacle remained here upward of three hundred years. It is supposed to be identical with a place now named Scilun. 4. Ephraim, to the southwest, among the mountains of the same name, and to which Jesus withdrew from the persecution which followed the miracle of raising Lazarus from the dead. 5. Gophna, to the south, a strong place, and, in Roman times, the capital of a district called from it Gophnitica. It is now Jifna. 6. Lydda, to the southwest, called in Scripture Lud, and under the Roman dominion Diospolis. It was the scene of Peter's miracle in healing Æneas. St. George the martyr was buried here, and the place is often mentioned likewise in the history of the crusades. It is still called Lud. 7. Arimathea, to the southwest, the birth-place of the wealthy Joseph, in whose sepulchre our Lord was laid. There is great probability in identifying it with the modern Ramleh. 8. Emmaus, to the southeast, called also Nicopolis, and now answering to Amwas. This place must not be confounded with the village of Emmaus, noted for our Lord's interview with two disciples on the day of his resurrection. The latter was much nearer Jerusalem, and its site has long been lost. 9. Bethel, originally Luz, to the southeast of Gophna. Here Jacob had his vision, and changed the name of the place accordingly. The site is now called Beitsin. 10. Michmas, to the southeast, near which was a pass where an enemy might be impeded or opposed. Here Jonathan, son of Saul, distinguished himself, and here also, at a later day, Jonathan Maccabæus fixed his abode. It still bears the name of Mukhmas. 11. Ramah, to the southwest, and in the vicinity of Gibeah. It is supposed to be identical with the modern village Er-Ram, two hours' journey north of Jerusalem, and to be the Rama alluded to by Jeremiah. 12. Hierichus, in Scripture Jericho, situate in the plain of Jericho, not far from the Jordan, just before its entrance into the Dead Sea. It was besieged and destroyed by the Israelites immediately after the passage of the Jordan; but was afterward rebuilt, on or near its former site, and became a flourishing city, next in size to Jerusalem. It is often called in Scripture "the city of palm trees," from the numerous trees of this description which abounded in its vicinity. Its site is now occupied by a wretched village named Rihah.

13. Hierosölyma, or Jerusalem, a name meaning in Hebrew "the abode of peace," to the southwest of Jericho, and twenty-seven miles west from where the Jordan enters the Dead Sea. It was the capital city of the Hebrew nation, and the chief city of their worship; and is thought to have been the Salem of which Melchisedec was king. When the Israelites entered Canaan, they found this city in the occupation of the Jebusites, a tribe descended from Jebus, a son of Canaan, and the place then bore the name of Jebus. The lower city was taken and burned by the children of Judah, but the Jebusites had so strongly fortified themselves in the upper city, on Mount Zion, that they maintained possession of it until the time of David. That monarch, after his seven years' rule over Judah in Hebron, became king of all Israel, on which he expelled the Jebusites from Mount Zion, and made Jerusalem the metropolis of his kingdom. Jerusalem was built on several hills, the largest of which was Mount Zion, which formed the southern part of the city. A valley toward the north separated this from Acra, the second or lower city, on the east of which was Mount Moriah, the site of the temple of Solomon. Southeast of Mount Moriah was the Mount of Olives, lying beyond the brook and valley of Kedron, which bordered Jerusalem on the east; on the south was the Valley of Hinnom, and at the north was Mount Calvary, the scene of the Crucifixion. Jerusalem was taken by Titus, September 8, A.D. 70, and almost entirely destroyed. It was afterward

rebuilt by the Emperor Hadrian, as a fortified place, by which to keep in check the whole Jewish population. On the ruins of the temple the same emperor caused a fane to be erected in honor of Jupiter Capitolinus, and gave the new city the name of Elia Capitolina, the first part of this appellation being derived from his own prænomen of Elius, and the latter being in honor of the deity just mentioned. The ancient name, however, began to come again into use in the time of Constantine. Jerusalem is now called by the Arabs cl-Kuds, or "the Holy."

14. Bethlehem, to the southwest of, and about six miles from Jerusalem, and the birth-place of our Savior. It was generally called Bethlehem Judah, to distinguish it from another Bethlehem in the tribe of Zebulon. It is likewise styled in Scripture Ephratah, or "the fruitful." It is now a large village named Beit Lahm. 15. Herōdīum, to the southeast, a fortress and city erected by Herod the Great. The site answers now to that of the Frank Mountain. 16. Eleutheropŏlis, to the southwest, an important episcopal city in the time of Eusebius and Jerome. It is supposed to have been the same with the Beto-gabra of Ptolemy, and to be now represented by the village of Beit-Jibrin. 17. Hebron, to the southeast, and a very ancient city. Its earlier name was Kirjath-Arba, or "the City of Arba," from Arba, the father of Anak and the Anakim, who dwelt in and around this city. This was the burial-place of Abraham and his family. David, on becoming king of Judah, made Hebron his royal residence. Here he reigned seven years and a half, and here he was anointed king over all Israel. The Arabs now call it el-Khulil. 18. Engaddi, to the southeast, on the western shore of the Dead Sea, and nearly equidistant from both extremities of that lake. It was famed for its beautiful palm trees, its opobalsum, and vineyards. The Arabs now call the site Ain-jidy. In its vicinity was the Wilderness of Engaddi, abounding in caverns. 19. Masada, to the south, on the shore of the same sea, a celebrated fortress built by Jonathan Maccabæus, and afterward greatly strengthened by Herod, as a place of refuge for himself. It stood on a lofty rock overhanging the Dead Sea. It was taken by the Romans after the fall of Jerusalem. the garrison having devoted themselves to self-destruction. The Arabic name for the ruins is Sebbeh. 20. Beersheba, or "the Well of the Oath," some distance to the west, so often mentioned in Scripture as the southern limit of the country possessed by the children of Israel. The northern limit was Dan, in Upper Galilee. This place took its name from the well which was dug there by Abraham, and the oath which confirmed his treaty with Abimelech.

SAMARIA.

I. Samaria was the smallest but most fruitful of the three divisions of Palestine. It was bounded on the north by Galilee, on the south by Judæa, on the east by the Jordan, and on the west by the Mediterranean.

II. After the kingdom of Israel had been overthrown, and the people carried away captive by the Assyrians, the country, being thus depopulated, was next inhabited by the neighboring heathen people, and by colonies from other parts of the Assyrian empire. These, mixing with the scattered remains of the tribes of Ephraim and Manasseh, formed the people spoken of in the New Testament as the Samaritans, who were regarded by the Jews as an impure race, and between whom and the Jews there always existed a strong mutual hatred.

PLACES IN SAMARIA.

1. Jezrael, near the northern borders, called also Esdraelon, and one of the residences of the kings of Israel. In the days of Eusebius and Jerome it was a large village called Esdraela, and in the same age it occurs again as Stradela. In the time of the crusades it was named by the Franks Parvum Gerinum, and by the Arabs Zerin. This last appellation still remains. 2. Beth-shan, to the southeast near the Jordan, and called also Scythopolis, because, as is supposed, some Scythians had settled there in the time of Josiah (B.C. 631) in their passage through Palestine toward Egypt. This place, though commonly ranked among the Samaritan cities, belonged in reality to what was termed Decapolis, an association of ten cities, which, not being inhabited by Jews, formed a confederation for mutual protection against the Asmonean princes of Judæa; Scythopolis is now Beisan. 3. Megiddo, to the west of Jezrael, originally one of the royal cities of the Canaanites, and which the Israelites were for a long time unable to conquer. Josiah was slain in battle near this place by Pharaoh-Necho. It was afterward called Legio, and is now Lejjun. 4. Casarēa, to the southwest, on the coast, originally named Turris Stratonis, and subsequently made a magnificent city and port by Herod, who called it Casarea in honor of Augustus. Here the Roman governors resided. It was the birth-place of Eusebius. The modern name is Kaisarich. 5. Samăria, to the southeast, the capital of the kingdom of Israel, or of the ten tribes, on a mountain or hill of the same name. site was extremely well selected both for strength and beauty. It was destroyed by John Hyrcanus, rebuilt by the Roman governor Gabinius, and beautified and enlarged by Herod, who called it Sebaste in honor of Augustus. It was also strongly fortified. The modern village of Sebustieh, built out of its ruins, stands near the site of this once royal city. 6. Sichem, to the southeast, in the narrow valley between Mounts Ebal and Gerizim, on the latter of which was built the Samaritan temple, in rivalry of the orthodox temple at Jerusalem. Sichem was a very ancient city. After the conquest of the country it became one of the Levitical cities, and during the life-time of Joshua it was a centre of union for the tribes. The city was taken and the temple destroyed by John Hyrcanus, B.C. 129. In the New Testament the place occurs under the name of Sychar. Vespasian subsequently either restored or rebuilt it, and gave it the name of Neapolis, which it still retains under the Arabic form of Nabulus.

GALILÆA

I. Galilæa or Galilee, lay to the north of Samaria, and was divided into Upper and Lower. Upper Galilee was mountainous, and was called Galilee of the Gentiles, from the heathen nations established there, who were enabled, by the mountainous nature of the country, to maintain themselves against all invaders. Strabo enumerates among its inhabitants Egyptians, Arabians, and Phænicians. Lower Galilee, on the other

hand, was a populous and fertile country, and contained numerous cities.

II. Galilee was the district which, of all others, was most honored with the presence of our Saviour. Hence the disciples were called Galilæans. They were easily recognized, indeed, as such, since the Galilæans spoke a dialect of the vernacular Syriac, different from that of Judæa, and which was accounted rude and impure. The Jews of Judæa regarded the Galilæans with much contempt.

PLACES IN GALILEE.

In Lower Galilee we may mention, 1. Nazareth, where our Saviour resided until the commencement of his ministry. It was probably no more than a village. It is now a small but more than usually well-built place, retaining its ancient name. 2. Dio Casarea, to the northwest, the Sepphöris of Josephus. It was captured by Herod the Great, and afterward destroyed by Varus. Herod Antipas rebuilt and fortified it, and it became the largest and strongest city of Galilee, taking precedence eventually of Tiberias itself. The modern Sefurich marks the ancient site. 3. Tiberias, on the western shore of the Lake of Gennesareth, which was called also from this city the Sea of Tiberias. It was founded by Herod Antipas, and named in honor of the Emperor Tiberius. After the fall of Jerusalem this place became one of the chief seats of the Jews, and was famous during several centuries for its school of Rabbinical teachers or doctors. The modern name is Tabaria. 4. Ammaus, a little to the south, famed for its hot baths, which are still frequented. The name of the place appears to be formed from the Hebrew Hammath, signifying "warm baths." 5. Tarīchæa, at the southeastern extremity of the lake, and deriving its name from the fishsalteries established there. After the capture of this place by Titus, a great number of the inhabitants escaped by water in boats and small craft. Vespasian having pursued them on the lake, a conflict ensued, in which a large number of the Jews were slaughtered. 6. Capernaum, on the northwestern side of the lake, where our Saviour, frequently resided after the commencement of his mission. Its site is supposed to be marked by a mound of ruins called Khan Minyeh.

In Upper Galilee we may mention, 1. Dan, the most northern place of the land of Judæa. Its original name was Laish or Leshem, and it was conquered by a warlike colony of Danites, who named it after their tribe. It became afterward a chief seat of Jeroboam's idolatry, and one of the golden calves was set up in it. The extent of the promised land is expressed in the well-known words "from Dan to Beersheba." Dan is supposed to have stood near the present Tell el-Kady, where the second source of the Jordan rises. 2. Cæsarēa Philippi, a little distance to the northeast. It was originally called Paneas; but, being enlarged and embellished by the tetrarch Philip, it was named by him Cæsarea, in honor of Tiberius, to which Philippi was added, in order to distinguish it from Cæsarea on the coast. The modern name is Banias. Twenty miles above this place the Jordan had its main source. 3. Jotapata, to the southeast, where the Jewish historian Josephus sustained a siege against Vespasian.

PERÆA.

THE country on the east of the Jordan, between the two lakes, was called Peræa, a name derived from πέραν "beyond," and extending from the brook Arnon, which flows into the Dead Sea, to the Hieromax, now Sheriat el-Mandhur, or Yarmouk, a tributary of the Jordan. The upper part of this tract was called Galaaditis, or Gilead, taking its name from the mountains of Gilead. This chain is connected with Antilibanus by means of Mount Hermon. It begins not far from the latter, and extends southward to the sources of the brooks Jabbok and Arnon, thus forming a kind of eastern boundary for Peræa. To this chain belongs that of Abarim, in a northeastern direction from Jericho. From one of the highest mountains of the range of Abarim, namely, Nebo, Moses surveyed the Promised Land before he died. The highest and most commanding peak of this mountain was, in all probability, the Pisgah of Scripture. In Peræa we may mention the following places: 1. Gadara, the metropolis, in a district termed Gadarene or Gergesene, below the Hieromax. Its inhabitants were heathens and Jews intermingled. Here the miracle in the case of the swine was performed. Gadara now answers to the village of Om-Keis. 2. Pella, to the south, and the southernmost of the cities of Decapolis. To this place many Christians fled when Jerusalem was getting invested by the Roman armies. It is now el-Budsche. 3. Amathus, to the south, an important place, made by Gabinius the seat of one of the five jurisdictions into which he divided the country. Its Jewish name was Betharamathon. It is now Amatah. To the south of it the Jabbok, now the Zerka, flowed into the Jordan. 4. Ramoth Galaad, to the southeast, on the Jabbok, and a place of great strength. It was the occasion of several wars between the later kings of Israel and the kings of Damascus, who long retained possession of it. This was one of the cities of refuge. 5. Machærus, to the southeast, a fortress on the frontiers of the Nabathæan Arabs, destroyed by Gabinius. 6. Heshbon, to the southeast, originally a city of the Moabites, but held by the Amorites when the Israelites arrived from Egypt. It became eventually a Levitical city. In the time of Eusebius and Jerome it was called Esbus. It is now Hesbon. 7. Calirrhoe, to the southwest, near the shore of the Dead Sea, and well known for its medicinal and health-bestowing waters, whence its Greek name. The Hebrew name was Lasa.

BATANÆA, &c.

Batanæa, answering in part to the Scripture Bashan, lay to the north of Peræa, and to the east of the Lake of Gennesareth and the upper part of the Jordan. When the Israelites invaded the Promised Land, Og was king of Bashan, and the country contained sixty "fenced cities," besides unwalled towns. These were all taken, and Og and his people were cut off. After the captivity, the name Batanæa was applied to only a part of the ancient Bashan, the rest being called Trachonitis, Ituræa, Auranitis, and Gaulonitis. The richness of the pasture land of Bashan, and the consequent superiority of its breed of cattle, are frequently alluded to in the Scriptures. The oaks, too, of Bashan are mentioned in connection with the cedars of Lebanon. Modern travellers also speak in high terms of the fertility of this country.

Trachonitis.—This was the name given in the days of the Herodian dynasty to the country situate between the range of Antilibanus and the mountains to the south of Damascus. The appellation was derived from the rugged nature of the region, τραχών denoting in Greek "a rugged, stony tract."

Ituraa.—The situation and limits of this region are difficult to determine. It appears, as far as we can ascertain, to have lain between Trachonitis and Ba-

tanæa, and to have answered to what is now Jedur, in which traces of the ancient name appear. Ituræa formed part of the tetrarchy of Philip.

Auranitis.—This district lay to the south of Trachonitis, and answers in some degree to the modern Hauran, which is much more extensive.

Gaulonitis.—A district on the eastern shore of the Lake of Gennesareth, and taking its name from Gaulon, a Levitical town situate in it. It appears to have formed part of the more ancient Bashan.

ARABIA.

I. Arabia was bounded on the north by Palestine and the Desert of Syria; on the northeast by the Sinus Persicus, or Persian Gulf; on the east and southeast by the Mare Erythraum, or Indian Ocean; on the southwest by the Sinus Arabicus, or Red Sea; and on the west by the Isthmus of Suez.

II. The original inhabitants of the country are called by the present Arabs Bajadites, or "the lost," to whom belonged the extinct tribes of Ad, Thamud, &c. The present Arabs derive their origin in part from Joktan or Kahtan, the son of Eber, and in part from Ishmael. The descendants of the former call themselves, emphatically, Arabs; those of the latter, Mostarabs. The name Arab itself implies "an inhabitant of the west," that is, one dwelling to the west of the Euphrates, and of the regions that were probably the earliest seats of the Semitio tribes.

III. Arabia was divided by the Greeks and Romans, from the time of Ptolemy, who introduced the division, into Arabia Deserta, Petraa, and Felix, an arrangement which we shall also follow on the present occasion. The more natural division, however, is that which distinguishes the coast, covered with aloes, myrrh, frankincense, indigo, nutmegs, &c., from the interior of the country, consisting for the most part of a desert of moving sand, with thorns and saline herbs.

IV. Arabia Deserta (ἡ ἔρημος) comprised the interior of the peninsula, but more particularly the northern part, bordering on the Syrian Desert. Arabia Petræa (ἡ Πετραία) was the northwestern portion, from Palestine to the Sinus Arabicus, including the country around the Sinus Ælanites, or Gulf of Akaba. Arabia Felix (ἡ εὐδαίμων) comprised all the rest of the peninsula, namely, the shores of the Sinus Arabicus below the Sinus Ælanites, of the Mare Erythræum, and of the Sinus Persicus. The maps generally, but incorrectly, restrict Arabia Felix to the southwestern and a part of the southeastern shore.

ARABIA DESERTA.

I. This portion of Arabia was roamed over by nomadic tribes resembling the modern Beduins. The Greek writers gave these tribes the general name of Arābes Scenītæ, from the circumstance of their living in tents (Σκηνῖται, ἀπὸ τῶν σκηνῶν). The Greek and Roman Christian writers, at a later day, confounded all the Arabian tribes, from Mecca to the Euphrates, under the name of Saraceni, a term derived from the Arabic saraka, "to plunder," and referring to their predatory habits. Ptolemy, however, some time before this, speaks of a tribe called Saraceni, whom he makes distinct from the Scenitæ, and dwelling to the south of them.

II. Besides the general name of *Scenita*, we learn, especially from Ptolemy, the appellations of many individual tribes, such as, 1. The *Catanii*, between Palmyra and the Euphrates. 2. The *Cauchabēni*, to the southeast, on the confines of Chaldæa. 3. The *Ausīta*, in the land of *Uz*. 4. The *Cedranīta*, deriving their origin from Kedar, son of Ishmael. 5. The *Agrai*, with the watering-place of *Agra*, &c.

ARABIA PETRÆA.

I. This portion of Arabia was so called from its capital *Petra*, although the epithet is also, as Burckhardt remarks, not inappropriate, on account of the rocky mountains and stony plains which compose its surface.

II. Five powerful tribes dwelt in this country at an early period, namely, 1. The Amalekites, descended from Amalek, the grandson of Esau, and occupying the district between Idumæa and Egypt. They were the first assailants of the Israelites after the passage of the Red Sea. Their power was subsequently broken by Saul. 2. The Edomites or Idumæi, occupying the country of Edom, from the south of the Dead Sea to the Sinus Ælanites, or Gulf of Akaba. In the time of our Saviour, Edom or Idumaa included a considerable portion of southern Palestine. The Edomites claimed descent from Esau, son of Isaac. They were made tributaries of the Jews during the reign of David; and the conquest of their country was of great importance to the Jews, since it enabled Solomon, by obtaining possession of the ports of Elath and Ezion-Geber on the Red Sea, to participate in the advantages of the trade with India. 3. The Maabites, claiming descent from Moab, son of Lot. They occupied the country on the east of the Dead Sea, from Zoar to the River Arnon, and were frequently engaged in hostilities with the Israelites. They were a pastoral people, and their country was well adapted for rearing cattle, and also produced corn and wine. Their chief city was Rabbath Moab, called afterward Areopolis. Jerome says it was destroyed by an earthquake in his youth. The ruins retain the name of Rabba. Another place in their country was Zoar, one of the five cities of the plain of Siddim, in which Lot took refuge. 4. The Ammonites, descended from Ben Ammi, the son of Lot. Their country lay between the Arnon and the Jabbok, above that of the Moabites. Their capital was Rabbath Ammon. It was destroyed by the Assyrians, and rebuilt subsequently by Ptolemy Philadelphus, who gave it the name of Philadelphia. The ruins are still called Amman. 5. The Midianites, a wide-spread nomadic race, whose earlier seats were to the west of Sinai, but who afterward extended themselves on the eastern side of the Red Sea as far as the Moabites. They carried on an active overland traffic between Arabia and Egypt. The Midianites annoyed the Israelites by constant inroads until completely subdued by Gideon.

III. All the five tribes just mentioned gradually disappeared from history, and in their place appeared the Nabathæi, who became the chief people of Arabia

Petræa. At first they led a nomadic life; but when the Ptolemies of Egypt ex. tended their favoring care to the commerce of the Red Sea, the Nabathæi became actively engaged in an overland traffic with the products of eastern Asia. Their capital was Petra, in Hebrew Sela, both terms signifying "rock." The situation of the place corresponded well to this name. It lay in a valley surrounded by lofty rocks, with a stream flowing through it, and having an access on one side only, and that a difficult one. As a commercial city, and a place of transit for the productions of the East, it was much resorted to by foreigners, and became a rich and flourishing city, as its magnificent ruins clearly prove. The modern name of these ruins is Wady Musa. We may mention in Arabia Petræa the following additional localities: 1. Ælana, in Hebrew Elath, at the head of the Sinus Ælanītes, and one of the two ports by which Solomon traded with Ophir and the remote east. It is now Akaba. 2. Ezion-Geber, a little distance below, subsequently called Berenice. This was the other one of Solomon's two harbors on the Red Sea. To the west of the Sinus Ælanites was the Sinus Heroopolites, so called from the Egyptian city of Heroopolis, and now the Gulf of Suez. In the peninsula between these two gulfs, and toward its southern extremity, we have Mounts Horeb and Sinai. The former of these mountains is at the northern end of a ridge, called by the ancient geographers Melănes Montes (Μέλανα ὄρη), or "the Black Mountains;" and at its southern end is Sinai, now Jebel Musa, or "Moses's Mount."

ARABIA FELIX.

This division of Arabia derived its name of Felix, or "the Happy," from the richness of its products, to which we have already alluded. It answers not only to the modern Yemen, but also to Hejaz, which lies to the north of it, as well as to Hadramaut, Oman, the Persian Gulf states, &c. The ancient writers enumerate many communities and places in this region, of which the most important appear to be the following:

Commencing on the side of the Sinus Arabicus, just below the Sinus Ælanites, we come to, 1. The Banizomenes, a hunter race, with a temple held sacred by all the Arab tribes. 2. The Thamydeni, farther on, in whose territory was Charmuthas, an excellent harbor, capable of holding two thousand sail, now Scherm Janbo; and Leuce Come, from which Gallus entered Arabia, and where the Romans had a fortified post. The city of Jathrippa, lying inland, is the modern Medina. 3. The Minæi, one of the most powerful tribes of Arabia. Among these we find Badai Regia, the residence of an Arabian prince, now perhaps Jidda; and Macoraba, now probably Mecca. 4. The Dosareni, taking their name from Mount Dusare, on which the god Dusares, answering to the Greek Dionysus, was worshipped. 5. The Sabæi, another of the more powerful tribes of Arabia. Their country answers to the modern Yemen, and was regarded as the most productive part of Arabia Felix. It yielded various odoriferous products, and particularly frankincense, and these formed the basis of a very active traffic with the nations of the west. They passed with the Greeks and Romans for an effeminate and luxurious race. Their capital was Saba, called also Mariaba, and in Scripture Sheba. It was Belkis, queen of Sheba, whom the fame of Solomon attracted to Jerusalem. 6. The Catabanes, below the Sabai, and occupying the coast along the strait of Dire or Bab-el-Mandeb. Their dwellings were constructed after the Egyptian fashion. Frankincense grew in their country also. Their capital was Tamna, containing within its walls sixty-five temples.

7. The Homeritæ, along the southern coast, after leaving the straits. They were a powerful race. Their capital was Saphar, in which a king resided with

the title of Charibacl, or "Sword-prince." The ruins are still called Dhafar. The most important harbor, however, was called Arabia Felix, a great place for trade between the Arabians and Egyptians. It was destroyed by Gallus, the Roman commander, but soon became flourishing again, and is now Aden. 8. The Adramita, a powerful tribe, farther on along the coast, and carrying on an active traffic in incense and other aromatics. Their country answers to the modern Hadramaut. The capital was Sabbatha, situate inland, and containing sixty temples. It was also called Mariaba, and is now Mareb. 9. The Omanita, to the northeast, in the angle of the country at the mouth of the Persian Gulf, where is now the district of Oman. 10. The Maca, on a peninsula running into the Persian Gulf. Their city Moscha is the modern Maskat. Beyond this was the Ichthyophagorum Sinus, where is now the Great Pearl bank, and, farther on, Gerrha, on the Sinus Gerrhaicus, with towers and houses built of mineral salt, now Al Catif. The inhabitants of this district were named Gerrhæi. They had emigrated from the land of the Chaldees, and with the Minai and Nabathai engrossed the whole overland trade with the countries of the Mediterranean. Here was Ezekiel's Dadan. Opposite the Sinus Gerrhaicus are the Bahrein islands, anciently Tyrus or Tylus and Aradus, famous for their pearl fisheries.

COUNTRIES BETWEEN THE EUPHRATES AND TI-GRIS, IN UPPER ASIA.

MESOPOTAMIA.

I. Mesopotamia (from μέσος and ποταμός) is the Greek name for the country between the Rivers Tigris and Euphrates. In Scripture it is called Aram Naharaim, that is, "Aram (or Syria) between the rivers;" and by the Arabs of the present day it is denominated Al Jezira, or "the Island." The Romans always regarded it as a mere division of Syria.

II. Mesopotamia was bounded on the north by the *Tigris* and *Mons Masius*, now *Karajeh-Dagh*, a branch of Mount Taurus; and on the south by the *Wall of Media*, and the canals connecting the Tigris and Euphrates, by which it was separated from Babylonia. The name of Mesopotamia, which was never employed to designate any political division, did not come into use until after the Macedonian conquest. Xenophon calls the southern part *Arabia*, and other writers included it, especially the northern part, under the general name of Syria.

III. The northern part of *Mesopotamia* was fertile and well watered; the southern, from the neighborhood of Circesium, was flat, and covered merely with low shrubs. Xenophon, in his Anabasis, compares it to a sea. The northern portion was divided into two districts by the River *Aborras* or *Chabōras*, now the *Khabour*, called by Xenophon the *Araxes*, which rose in Mount *Masius*, and, after receiving on the east the *Mygdŏnius*,

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now al Huali, flowed into the Euphrates at Circesium. Of these divisions the western was called Osroene, and the eastern Mygdonia. The former of these took its name from Osroes, an Arab sheik, who about 120 B.C. wrested a principality in this quarter from the Seleucidæ of Syria.

PLACES IN MESOPOTAMIA.

In Mygdonia we may mention, 1. Nisibis, the chief city, at the foot of Mount Masius, on the River Mygdonius. The name was changed by the Macedonians to Antiochia Mygdonica, but this appellation lasted only a short time. It was taken and plundered by Lucullus, and afterward held by the Parthians, from whom it was wrested by Trajan. It formed a strong bulwark of the Roman power in this quarter, and repelled three successive attacks of Sapor, in A.D. 338, 346, and 350. It was ceded to him, however, A.D. 363, after the death of Julian, by his successor Jovian. The modern Nisibin occupies its site. 2. Daras, to the north, a stronghold, fortified by the Emperor Anastasius, to compensate for the loss of Nisibis, and called from him Anastasiopolis. It became an important city, especially from the time of Justinian, who strengthened it still more. The site is now called Dara. 3. Cana, a large and rich city on the Tigris, near the junction with that river of the Lycus, or Greater Zab. 4. Singara, to the northwest, a strongly-fortified Roman colony. Here Constantius II. was defeated in a nocturnal encounter by Sapor, and the place ever after was lost to the Romans.

In Osroene we have, 1. Edessa, in the northwestern part of the district, on the River Scirtus, now the Daisan, rising from a beautiful spring called by the Greeks Calirrhöe, and whence Edessa itself was called by the Macedonians Antiochia ad Calirrhöen. This spring still remains, and the inhabitants have a tradition at the present day that here was the spot where Abraham offered up his prayer previous to his intended sacrifice of Isaac. Edessa became a place of great celebrity, and the capital of Osroene. It suffered greatly from an earthquake in the reign of Justin I., who rebuilt a considerable part of it, and gave it the name of Justinopolis. It is now Orrhoa or Orfa. 2. Batnæ, one day's journey from Edessa, and near the Euphrates. Here, at the beginning of September, a great fair was held för Indian, Chinese, and other goods. Its Syriac name was Sarug, and it is now a small place named Seronge. 3. Carræ, to the southeast of Edessa, the Haran of Scripture, where Abraham's family dwelt after they had left Ur. of the Chaldees. It is memorable in Roman history for the defeat of Crassus. The moon was here worshipped as a male deity. 4. Nicephorium, south of Canæ, a strongly-fortified, and, at the same time, flourishing commercial city at the confluence of the Bilecha and Euphrates. Alexander the Great selected the site, and the city was probably completed by Seleucus Nicator, and named from a victory gained by him here. The Emperor Leo, at a later day, gave it the name of Leontopolis from himself. It seems also to have had the name of Callinicus. Its site was near the modern Racca. 5. Circesium, to the southeast, at the junction of the Euphrates and Aborras or Chaboras. It was a very ancient place, and the same evidently with the Carchemish of Scripture. It was strongly fortified by Dioclesian. The site is still called Kirkessieh.

Southern Mesopotamia was, generally speaking, a desert country, traversed for the most part by nomadic tribes of Arabs. Some few places, however, occur worthy of mention. The settlements were principally on the two rivers,

and here and there in the interior. We may name, 1. Zaitha, on the Euphrates, a little below Circesium, near which was the tomb of Gordium. 2. Corsōte, at the junction of the Mascas and Euphrates, mentioned in Xenophon's Anabasis as a deserted city. It is not noticed by later writers. 3. Anatho, lower down on the Euphrates, destroyed by Julian. It is now Ana, with a fertile territory on both sides of the Euphrates. 4. Atræ or Hatræ, called also Hatris, in the interior, toward the Euphrates, the chief city of the Arabian tribe of the Atreni. It was a place of great strength, on a steep and lofty rock, and was consecrated to the sun. The Emperors Trajan and Severus besieged it in vain. It was in ruins, however, in the fourth century.

ARMENIA.

I. Arměnia was divided into Arměnia Major and Minor, separated from each other by the River Euphrates, and the latter of which is sometimes, though less correctly, regarded as forming part of Cappadocia.

II. Armënia Minor was bounded on the east by the Euphrates, on the north by Pontus, and on the west and south by Cappadocia, the dividing line on the south being formed by the River Melas, a tributary of the Euphrates. In the time of Ptolemy, however, we find Armenia Minor encroaching on Cappadocia, and including the whole of Melitene and Aravene on the south.

III. Arměnia Major was bounded on the north by Colchis, Iberia, and Albania; on the northeast and east by Albania; on the west by Armenia Minor and Pontus; and on the south by Mesopotamia, Assyria, and Media.

ARMENIA MINOR.

I. The inhabitants of this country were doubtless of the same race as the people of Armenia Major, and spoke the same language; they had also been governed by the kings of the latter country, but not unfrequently had been subject to the rule of their own princes. These, however, subsequently yielded to the ascendency of Mithradates the Great. This monarch, having become master of the country, perceived the advantage it afforded from the strength of its positions and the resources it possessed. He is said to have built there no less than seventy-five fortresses, in which he deposited his treasures and valuable effects. The chain of Mount Paryadres, on the northwest, was particularly favorable for his views, as it was abundantly supplied with timber forests and water, and was every where intersected by numerous ravines and rocky precipices.

II. We may mention in this region the following places: 1. Nicopolis, toward the northwestern frontier, founded by Pompey in commemoration of a victory obtained by him here over Mithradates. It is now probably represented by the Turkish town of Devliki. Of the seventy-five fortresses built by Mithradates, Strabo has named only three, more important than the rest, namely, Hydara, Basgædariza, and Synoria. The two former are unknown. Synoria was on

the borders of Armenia Major, and appears to be now Senarvir. 2. Satala, to the northeast, a place of some traffic and consequence, from which numerous roads branched off to Pontus and Cappadocia. It was the station of the fifteenth Roman legion. Mannert places it at Sukme; D'Anville, less correctly, at Erzinghan.

ARMENIA MAJOR.

I. Arměnia Major, or Armenia Proper, was bounded on the north by Colchis, Iberia, and part of Albania; on the northeast and east by the remaining part of Albania; on the west by Armenia Minor; and on the south by Mesopotamia, Assyria, and Media. It is one of the most lofty countries of Southern Asia, and its climate in the higher regions is extremely cold, the summits of several of its mountains being covered with perpetual snow. It possesses, however, several fruitful valleys, and is a fertile country. Strabo speaks with praise of the Armenian horses. The country was rich also in precious stones and metals. Strabo speaks in particular of gold mines at a place called Kambala, probably in the northern part of the country.

II. Besides the Tigris and Euphrates, we may mention, among the rivers of this country, the Cyrus, the Araxes, and the Arsanias. 1. The Cyrus, now the Kur, rose in the mountains of Iberia, and after separating Armenia from Albania, emptied into the Caspian Sea. 2. The Araxes, now the Aras, rose in the range of Antitaurus, near the western confines of Armenia, and after traversing the country, and in a part of its course separating Armenia from Media, joins the Cyrus not far from the mouths of the latter. On some maps the Araxes and Cyrus have separate mouths, whereas there should be three for the united stream. 3. The Arsanias, now the Ardjis or Arsen, rose in the range of Mount Abus, and flowing for the most part in a southwestern direction, fell into the Euphrates. It is sometimes mistaken for the Euphrates itself.

III. The principal lakes of Armenia are, 1. Arsissa Palus, now Lake Wan, having a circumference of two hundred and forty miles. This is the largest one. The ancient name may still be traced in that of the fortress of Ardsisch, on the northern side of the lake. 2. Lychnītis Palus, to the northeast of the former. It is now the Lake of Gonkeka or Eriwan. 3. Thospītis Palus, to the southwest of Arsissa Palus, now the Lake of Erzen.

IV. The chief mountains are, 1. Montes Moschici, in the west, now Mesidji-Dagh. 2. Antitaurus, running through the central parts of the country. 3. Mons Abus, between the Arsissa and Lychnitis Palus, and believed by the natives at the present day to be the Ararat of Scripture. The Turks call it Aghri-Dagh; but the Persians, Koh-i-Nuh, or "Mount Noah." 4. Montes Gordyæi, along a portion of the Mesopotamian and Assyrian frontiers, and forming the eastern part of the range of Masius. Both Mons Masius and the Montes Gordyæi correspond to what are now the mountains of Kurdistan. 5. Mons Masius, in the southwest, separating Armenia from Mesopotamia. It is now Karajch-Dagh. 6. Niphātes, so called by the Greeks from the summits being covered with perpetual snow. They lie to the southwest, in the district of Sophene, below the Arsanias, and, according to St. Martin, now called Mount Nebad or Nebadagan.

V. The early history of Armenia is a confused mass of traditions, and the Armenians, as a nation, occupy no place in the early history of Asia. They were subjected in turn by the Assyrians, Medes, Persians, and Macedonians. After the death of Alexander, Armenia became part of the kingdom of Syria, and so remained till the overthrow of Antiochus the Great. The Romans and Parthians fought a long time for the right of giving a successor to the throne;

and it was governed at one time by Parthian princes, at another by those whom the Romans favored, until Trajan made it a Roman province. It afterward recovered its independence, and was under the rule of its own kings. Sapor in vain attempted its subjection, and it remained free till A.D. 650, when it was conquered by the Arabians.

PLACES IN ARMENIA MAJOR.

Armenia was divided into a number of small districts, or strategies, such as Catarzene, Ossarene, Motene, Colthene, &c. The most important places are the following: 1. Artaxăta (τὰ 'Αρτάξατα), in Armenian Artaschad, the capital of the country, on the River Araxes, and a strongly-fortified place. It was built by Artaxias, the founder of the new Armenian monarchy, after the yoke of Antiochus had been thrown off, and is said to have been erected by the advice of Hannibal. It was frequently taken and plundered, and on one occasion burned by the Romans under Corbulo. Tiridates, however, rebuilt it, and called it Neronia, and it continued to exist as late as the fourteenth century. The ruins are called Ardachat. 2. Arxata, to the northwest, also on the Araxes, and probably the earlier capital. On this same site Ptolemy subsequently places the city of Naxuana, the modern Nackjuvan. 3. Tigranocerta (τὰ Τιγρανόκερτα), or "City of Tigranes," to the southwest of the Arsissa Palus, on the River Centrites or Nicephorius, a tributary of the Tigris, and situate on a height. It was built by Tigranes, son of Artaxias, and son-in-law of Mithradates, and became a large, rich, and powerful city, inhabited not only by Orientals, but also by many Greeks, and particularly by many Macedonians, who had been carried off from Cappadocia and Cilicia. Lucullus took it during the Mithradatic war, and found in it immense riches. The Roman commander allowed those of the Greek residents who had been torn from their homes to return to them; but, though many embraced this offer, the city nevertheless continued to be a large and important one. Its remains are at Sered, on the Chabur. 4. Arsamosata, or Armosata, a strongly-fortified place in the district of Sophene, not far from the pass over Mount Taurus called Clisura. It is now Simsat. 5. Elegia, in an angle of the Euphrates, and known by Trajan's expedition in this quarter. It is now Ilija.

In the reign of Theodosius the Great, the Romans having by treaty reobtained possession of the western part of Armenia, where there were mines of the precious metals, erected several fortresses to defend them. Some of these subsequently rose to the rank of cities. Among them we may mention, 1. Arzen, the modern Erzeroum, the capital now of Turkish Armenia. 2. Kars, now the capital of the pachalic of Kars. 3. Amida, to the west of Tigranocerta, now Diarbekir, or Kara Amid, capital of the pachalic of the same name. Here gold and silver mines were found.

BABYLONIA.

I. Babylonia, now Irak Arabi, was bounded on the east by Susiana and Assyria, on the south by the Sinus Persicus, on the west by the Arabian Desert, and on the north by Mesopotamia. It was separated from this latter country by what was termed the Wall of Media, a wall of baked brick, erected by Semiramis as a barrier against the incursions of the Medes and other nations, twenty feet broad and one hundred feet high.

II. Babylonia was entirely flat and alluvial land, which, on account of the want of rain, was watered from canals by means of hydraulic machines, and was in this way rendered extremely fertile, producing from two to three hundred fold. The principal canals were, 1. The *Maarsares* (more correctly, perhaps, *Naarsares*), now *Narsi*, drawn from the Euphrates above Babylon, running parallel to the river, on its western side, and joining it again below Babylon. 2. The *Naarmalcha*, or "Royal River," drawn from the Euphrates in a southeastern direction to the Tigris, and navigable for ships of considerable burden. 3. The *Pallakopas*, drawn from the Euphrates below Babylon, and extending into the desert country on the west, where it terminated in some lakes.

III. The only tree that flourished in this soil was the palm, of which there were great numbers. The want of wood and stone was supplied by an inexhaustible abundance of clay for making bricks. These were baked in the sun. Instead of lime they used naphtha or bitumen, of which there were large fountains here.

DIVISIONS, INHABITANTS, &c.

I. Babylonia was anciently divided into two districts, namely, Babylonia Proper and Chaldæa. The former comprised the country extending southward from Mesopotamia, and inclosed between the Euphrates and Tigris. Chaldæa, on the other hand, in this its limited sense, meant the country lying along the right bank of the Euphrates, and extending as far into the desert on the west as this could be rendered fertile by irrigation. Chaldæa, however, in this use of the term, must not be confounded with the same appellation when employed in its more extended sense, for then it denotes the whole country of Babylonia, and by Chaldæi are then meant the whole race.

II. The mountaineer *Chaldæi* of the Carduchian chain in Armenia are regarded by Gesenius and others as the original stock of the Chaldæans or Babylonians. Some descendants of these mountaineers, the *Chasdim*, namely, of the Old Testament, appear to have settled at a remote period in the plains of Babylonia, and, after having been subject to the Assyrians, to have there subsequently founded a Chaldæo-Babylonian empire. The language spoken at Babylon, and which is always called the Chaldæan language, was of the Shemitic stock. According to the Old Testament, the foundation of the Chaldæan empire was laid by Nimrod in the plains of Shinar. This empire flourished most under Nabopolassar and Nebuchadnezzar, the latter of whom carried away the inhabitants of Jerusalem in captivity to Babylon. The Chaldæan empire ended with the taking of Babylon by Cyrus, and the reduction of the country to a Persian province, B.C. 538.

III. The favorable position of Babylonia, midway between the Indus and the Mediterranean, in the neighborhood of the Persian Gulf, and between two navigable rivers, rendered it, and its capital Babylon, the centre of commercial

communication between Upper and Lower Asia. The land trade was carried on by means of caravans, eastward with India, from which country they imported precious stones, dyes, pearls, wood for ship-building, and cotton; westward with Asia and Phœnicia, up the Euphrates as far as Thapsacus, and thence by caravans. Babylon itself was famous for superior linen, woollen and cotton cloths, and carpets, which formed valuable articles of export. Maritime commerce, on the other hand, was carried on, not so much by the Babylonians themselves, as through the Phœnicians who settled on their coasts.

PLACES IN BABYLONIA PROPER.

1. Babylon, the capital of the empire, situate on both sides of the Euphrates. Its founder is not known. Herodotus says that the building of Babylon was the work of several successive sovereigns, but among them he distinguishes two queens, Semiramis and Nitocris, to whom the city was indebted for numerous improvements. Babylon was built in the form of a square, each side being one hundred and twenty stadia in length, which makes the circuit four hundred and eighty stadia, or above fifty miles. The walls were of brick, and fifty royal cubits thick and two hundred high, with two hundred and fifty towers, and one hundred brazen gates. The Euphrates ran through the city, and divided it into two parts. The city, however, was by no means thickly inhabited, a great portion of the space within the walls being occupied by fields and gardens. In one division of the city was the palace, with its hanging gardens, that is, gardens laid out in the form of terraces over arches. In the other division was the temple of Belus, a building of enormous size, consisting of eight stages, surmounted by a large temple. After the death of Alexander, Babylon, which he had intended for the capital of his empire, fell to the share of Seleucus, but was neglected by him, and allowed to decline. The founding of Scleucia in its vicinity completed its downfall. The ruins at the present day consist of mounds of earth and brick-work intermingled. 2. Seleucia, on the western bank of the Tigris, about forty-five miles to the north of Babylon. It was founded by and called after Seleucus Nicator, and was the capital of the Macedonian conquests in Upper Asia. Its population is said to have been six hundred thousand. The rise of Ctesiphon, on the other side of the Tigris, proved greatly injurious to Seleucia; but it received its death-blow from the Romans, having been first plundered and partially consumed by them in the reign of Trajan, and finally destroyed in that of Verus. The ruins of Seleucia and Ctesiphon are now called *El-Madain*, or "the (two) cities." 3. $C\bar{o}che(K\omega\chi\dot{\eta})$, to the southeast, on the Tigris, and famed for the beauty of the surrounding country. 4. Cunaxa, a few miles below the entrance of the wall of Media, and, according to Plutarch, five hundred stadia from Babylon. Here the celebrated battle was fought between Artaxerxes Mnemon and his brother, Cyrus the younger, in which the latter lost his life.

PLACES IN CHALDEA.

1. Borsippa, below Babylon, the seat of a college or fraternity of Chaldean astronomers, called from it Borsippeni. It was famed for its linen manufacture. Here, too, large bats were smoke-dried and eaten. Reichard makes it answer to the modern Cufa. D'Anville and Mannert, however, place it near Semaue. 2. Vologesia or Vologesocerta, to the southeast, built by the Parthian Vologeses, who was contemporary with Nero and Vespasian, with the view of injuring Seleucia. Mannert makes this place, and not Borsippa, answer to Cufa. 3. Or-

chõe or Urchõa, to the southeast, the seat of another astronomical college. Some suppose it to be the same with "Ur of the Chaldees," mentioned in Scripture as the native place of the family of Abraham. 4. Terēdon or Diridōtis, west of the Pasitigris, the stream formed by the union of the Euphrates and Tigris. It was a depôt for frankincense and other Arabian products, and is now, perhaps, Dorah. 5. Apamēa, in the southern extremity of what was called the island of Mesene, an insular tract formed by the Tigris and the canal termed Naarmalcha, or "the Royal River," already mentioned. This Mesene must not be confounded with the island of the same name at the mouth of the Tigris. Apamea answers to the modern Corne. 6. Charax Spasinu (Χάραξ Σπασίνον), selected by Alexander as a port, and subsequently the residence of an Arabian prince named Spasines.

COUNTRIES BETWEEN THE TIGRIS AND INDUS. ASSYRIA.

I. Assyria, in the limited sense of the term, was a province of the great Persian satrapy of Babylonia, and answers now to a part of Kurdistan. It was bounded on the north by Armenia, on the east by Media and Susiana, on the west by Mesopotamia and part of Babylonia, and on the south by the remaining portion of Babylonia.

II. Assyria was mountainous in the north and east. It was a well-watered country, however, and consequently, for the most part, productive. Its chief and boundary river was the Tigris, besides which Ptolemy mentions particularly three rivers, namely, the Lycus, Caprus, and Gorgus. The Lycus is the same river which Xenophon calls Zabatus, now the Zab Ala, the Upper or Greater Zab; while the Caprus is now the Zab Asfal, the Lower or Lesser Zab. The Gorgus is supposed to be identical with the Sillas of Isidorus, and Delas of Stephanus Byzantinus, and is now the Diala. To these we may add the Gyndes, now the Kerah; the Physcus, now the Odoan or Odorneh; and the Bumadus or Bumalus, now the Chasir, running by Gaugamēla. This last-mentioned river is a tributary of the Greater Zab; all the rest flow into the Tigris.

III. The province of Assyria was subdivided into several districts, of which the principal were, 1. Aturia, to the northwest of the Greater Zab. The name Aturia appears to be a mere dialective variety of pronunciation instead of Assyria, and the district thus designated was probably the central point from which the power as well as the name of Assyria was subsequently spread. 2. Adiabēne, between the Greater and Lesser Zab. 3. Apollēniātis, to the south of the Lesser Zab. 4. Cha-

lonitis, to the east of the preceding. 5. Sittacene, the territory around the city of Sittace. 6. Satrapene, in the extreme south.

HISTORY OF ASSYRIA.

Assyria, taken in a more extended sense, means the Assyrian Empire, comprising not only the province just mentioned, but also Mesopotamia, Babylonia, Media, Persia, and several countries of Western Asia. The early history of this empire is involved in great obscurity, our only certain source of information being the Old Testament, and the information which even this affords being limited and incidental. The legend of Ninus, and his warlike queen Semiramis, as given by Diodorus, does not belong to the period of authentic history. The Hebrew chronicles, on the other hand, leave us in the dark with reference to the history of Assyria till the earlier part of the eighth century before our era. From this time downward the names of several Assyrian kings are mentioned, the earliest of whom is Phul, contemporary with Menahem, king of Israel. Another of these monarchs, named Salmanassar, contemporary with Hosea, king of Israel, and Hezekiah, king of Judea, put an end to the kingdom of Israel (B.C. 722) by what is termed the Assyrian captivity. The last monarch of Assyria was Sardanapālus, in whose reign Nineveh was taken by the Medes and Babylonians under Arbaces and Belesis. Sardanapalus was the thirtieth in succession from Ninus, according to the common account. The brilliant discoveries which have recently been made by Layard, have thrown much light on various obscure parts of Assyrian history, and if these discoveries be followed up, as is now extremely probable, by new researches, much of the history of Assyria, as it is now received, will have to be re-written. Layard thinks there are sufficient grounds for the conjecture that there were two, if not more, distinct Assyrian dynasties; the first commencing with Ninus, and ending with a Sardanapalus of history; and the second, including the kings mentioned in the Scriptures, and ending with Saracus, Ninus II., or the king, under whatever name he was known, in whose reign Nineveh was finally destroyed by the combined armies of Persia and Babylon.

PLACES IN ASSYRIA.

1. Ninus (ἡ Νῖνος), the Ninive of Scripture, and capital of the Assyrian empire. It was situate on the eastern bank of the Tigris, above the mouth of the Greater Zab, and, according to one account, was founded by Ninus, the early Assyrian monarch. It is said to have been a still larger city than Babylon, and its walls to have been one hundred feet high, and broad enough for three chariots to pass abreast. There were also on the ramparts fifteen hundred towers, each two hundred feet high. Ninive appears to have been partially destroyed on the downfall of Sardanapalus, but to have been completely overthrown by Cyaxares, the father of Astyages, king of the Medes. At a later period, another city of the name of Ninus appears to have arisen in this quarter, but whether on the site of the earlier one, or in its vicinity, we have no means of ascertaining. The opinion advanced by Mannert and others, that there was also a city named Ninus below Babylon, on the Euphrates, is altogether untenable. The ruins of Ninive have been generally supposed to be those on the eastern side of the Tigris, opposite Mosul; but the recent and very remarkable discoveries of Lavard, in excavating the mounds not only at Kouyunjik, opposite Mosul, but also at Nimroud, lower down the river, together with those made by Botta at Khorsabad, have led to some doubt respecting the particular locality of this once

celebrated capital, though they confirm, however, the opinion that it was situated on the left bank of the Tigris, above the mouth of the Greater Zab.

2. Gaugamēla, to the southeast, a village near the River Bumadus, and in the vicinity of which was fought the final battle between Alexander and Darius. This, however, is called in history the battle of Arbēla, from the city of that name, in which Darius had established his head-quarters, and which hence gave name to the fight, though five hundred stadia from the battle field. Gaugamela is said to have signified in Persian "the camel's abode," and to have been so called because Darius Hystaspis placed here the camel on which he had escaped in his Scythian expedition, having appointed the revenue of certain villages for its maintenance. 3. Arbēla, the chief city of eastern Adiabēne, and in the district called from it Arbelītis. It is now Arbil. Mention has been made of it under the head of Gaugamela. 4. Apollonia, the capital of the district Apolloniātis. 5. Artemita, to the south, called by the natives Chalasar. Its site is occupied by the modern Schehrban. 6. Sittäce, to the northwest, near the Tigris, and the capital of the district Sittacene. 7. Ctesiphon, on the Tigris, opposite Seleucia. It was at first a small village, but the camp of the Parthian monarchs being frequently pitched here, caused it gradually to become a large city, and finally the capital of the Parthian empire. It was sacked by the Saracens in A.D. 637. The ruins of this place and of Seleucia are now called Al Modain, or "the (two) cities."

SUSIANA.

I. Susiana, also called Susis, was the name given by the Greek geographers to a tract of country lying between Babylonia and Persis, and bounded on the north by Media, and on the south by the Persian Gulf. The northern part was mountainous, and enjoyed a temperate climate; but the southern portion, along the shore of the gulf, was exceedingly hot, being exposed to the west and south winds, while the mountains to the north and east kept off every cooling breeze. The country was not thickly settled, and had but few cities. It comprehends pretty nearly the modern Khuzistan.

II. Among the rivers of Susiana we may mention, 1. The Choaspes, falling into the united streams of the Euphrates and Tigris. It is now the Kerkhah or Kerah. This river ran by Susa, the capital of the country. Its waters were remarkable for their clearness and purity, and the kings of Persia drank of no other. Wherever these monarchs went, they were attended by a number of four-wheeled carriages, drawn by mules, in which the waters of this river, being first boiled, were deposited in vessels of silver. 2. The Eulaus, called in Scripture Ulai, and regarded by some as the same with the Choaspes. Others, however, make it answer to the modern Kuran, which unites with the Dizful, the ancient Cophrates. 3. The He-

dyphon, called by Pliny the Hedypnus. It is supposed by some, though without any good reason, to be the modern Jerahi.

III. The inhabitants of the country were called Susii or Cissii, and, according to the ancient writers, belonged to the Syrian stock, and spoke the Syrian language. Those who dwelt in the plains, or level country to the south, were a peaceful and agricultural race, living for the most part in villages. The mountaineers, on the other hand, were a warlike and independent people, owing no subjection to the Persians, and oftentimes even exacting payment from the Persian kings, when these passed through their mountain defiles from Susa to Persepolis.

PLACES IN SUSIANA.

1. Susa, in Scripture Susan, the capital, in the district of Cissia, on the east ern bank of the River Choaspes, built in the form of a rectangle, without walls, but having a strongly fortified citadel named Memnonia or Memnoneum. It was the winter residence of the kings of Persia, their summers being spent at Echatana, in the cool, mountainous country of Media. It was also one of the royal treasuries, and Alexander found a large amount of wealth here. The name Susa or Susan is said to mean "a lily," and the city to have derived its name from the abundance of these flowers which grew in its vicinity. Great difficulty exists with regard to its site at the present day, modern scholars being divided between Sus and Shuster; the former, however, appears to have the better claim. The ruins present the appearance of numerous irregular mounds, with a great tumulus representing probably the site of the citadel. The whole circuit of these remains is about six or seven miles. 2. Seleucia, in the district of Elymais, on the Hedyphon, and probably the same with the Sele of Ptolemy. Its site is to be found in the territory of the modern Sultanabad. 3. Azăra, also in Elymaïs, a village containing rich and celebrated temples of Venus and Diana. It was near the modern Diarsun.

PERSIS.

I. Persis or Persia, called in Scripture Paras, and by the Arabic and Persian writers Fars or Farsistan, is used in two significations; first, as applying to Persia Proper, or the country originally inhabited by the Persians; and, secondly, as denoting the Persian Empire.

II. Persis, or Persia Proper, was bounded on the north by Media and Parthia, on the east by Carmania, on the west by Susiana, and on the southwest and south by the Persian Gulf. The country included within these limits is as large as modern France. The southern part, near the coast, is a sandy plain, almost uninhabitable on account of the heat, and the pestilential winds which blow from the Desert of Carmania; but at some distance from the coast the ground rises, and the interior

Asia.

of the country is intersected by numerous mountain ranges. This part of Persia was the original seat of the conquerors of Asia, where they were inured to hardship and privation.

III. The principal rivers were, 1. The Araxes, rising in the mountains of the Parætacēni, flowing by Persepolis, where it receives the Medus, coming from Media, and emptying into a salt lake, now the Lake of Bakhtegan, to the southeast of the city just mentioned. The Araxes is now the Bend-emir; and the Medus, the Farwar or Schamior. 2. The Cyrus, flowing by Pasargadæ, and now probably the Khor.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, &c.

I. The Persians, on account of the variety of their soil, were partly nomades, partly agriculturists. Herodotus enumerates four nomadic or herdsmen castes, three agricultural, and three warrior castes. These last were called the Pasargada, Maraphii, and Maspii. Of these, the Pasargada were the noblest, to the chief clan of which, called the Achamenida, the royal family of Persia belonged.

II. Herodotus says that the Persians were originally called Artxi, which word probably contains the same root as Arii, the original name of the Medes, and Arya, the word by which the followers of the Brahmanic religion are designated in Sanscrit. The same root occurs in Aria and Ariana, from the latter of which the modern Persian name Iran seems to be derived.

III. At the earliest period of which any trace is preserved, Persis appears to have formed merely a province of the great Assyrian empire. On the disruption of this empire it fell under the power of the Medes. The Median yoke was broken by Cyrus, who laid the foundation of the great Persian empire, which his successors gradually enlarged, until it embraced the larger portion of Asia, together with Thrace and Macedonia in Europe, and, in Africa, Egypt, and the neighboring country of Libya. This empire was overthrown by Alexander, on whose death Persis fell to the lot of the Seleucidæ. It was wrested from them subsequently by the Parthians, and from these last it afterward passed into the hands of the Sassanidæ, or new Persian dynasty.

PLACES IN PERSIS.

1. Pasargadæ, a very ancient city, and the royal residence previous to the founding of Persepolis. It is said to have been built by Cyrus after his victory over Astyages the Mede, which he gained near this place. The kings of Persia, according to Plutarch, were consecrated here by the Magi, and here also was the tomb of Cyrus. The position of Pasargadæ has been a subject of much dispute. Many modern writers, following Morier and Sir R. K. Porter, have been disposed to place it in what is now the plain of Murghab, about fifty miles northeast of Persepolis. Lassen, however, thinks that we ought to look for it to the southeast of Persepolis, in the neighborhood of Darabgherd or Farsa. 2. Persepolis, the capital of Persia, situate in an extensive plain near the junction of the Araxes and Medus. The Greek writers speak of its citadel, surrounded by a triple wall, and containing within its inclosure the royal treasury, palace, and the tombs of the kings. The palace was burned by Alexander in a fit of intox-

ication, and the city was plundered by the Macedonian soldiery. Persepolis was not, however, laid in ruins on this occasion, as some have supposed, but is mentioned by subsequent writers as still existing; and even in a later age, under the sway of Mohammedan princes, this city, with its name changed to Istakhar, was their usual place of residence. Oriental historians say that the Persian name for Persepolis was likewise Istakhar or Estakhar. The ruins of Persepolis, or, rather, a part of them, are now called Tchil-Minar, that is, "the forty (or many) pillars," and are described in Sir R. K. Porter's Travels. 3. Gabæ, another royal residence, near Pasargadæ. 4. Aspadana, probably the modern Ispahan.

CARMANIA.

I. Carmānia was a large province, having Persis on the west, Gedrosia on the east, the Persian Gulf and Mare Erythraum to the south, and Parthia on the north. It answers to the modern Kerman, together with the easternmost portion of Laristan and Moghistan. The country was little known to the ancient Greeks and Romans, their acquaintance with it being derived merely from Alexander's march through it to India, and from the circumstance of the Seleucidæ having held a part of it subsequently under their sway.

II. The northern part was a desert; the remainder of the country the ancients represent as extremely productive, especially in grapes, yielding clusters of these more than two feet long. The other products were, gold in one of the rivers, silver, copper, cinnabar, arsenic, corn, salt, together with abundance of asses.

PLACES IN CARMANIA.

Among the places in Carmania deserving of mention we may merely particularize here, 1. Carmāna, the chief town, some distance inland, and now Khirman.

2. Harmuza, in the district of Harmozia, on the coast, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, near the modern Minau. The promontory of Harmozon, near this place, is now Cape Kuhestek. The ancient name of Harmuza was corrupted in time to Ormuz, and became the modern and well-known name of the island anciently called Organa, lying off this coast.

3. Sidōdōne, on the coast, toward the western frontier, the inhabitants of which, as well as their cattle, lived and still live on fish. It is now Lundje. Among the islands off the coast we may name, 1. Organa, now Ormuz, already mentioned.

2. Catæa, sacred to Neptune and Venus, and to which the inhabitants of the coast brought yearly offerings; now Kisch or Kenn.

3. Oōracta, a large and fruitful island, containing the tomb of King Erythras, who once ruled over all these shores, and after whom the Mare Erythraum was named. It is now Dsjisme or Khishme.

GEDROSIA.

I. Gedrosia lay between Carmania and India, having the Mare Erythræum on the south, and running back as far as

Aria on the north. The northern part was mountainous, and tolerably productive; but the southern portion, lying along the coast, was hardly any thing more than a desert. The whole country answers to the modern Mekran, one of the provinces of Beloochistan.

II. According to Strabo, the southern part of Gedrosia abounded in aromatics, especially nard and myrrh. The coast was inhabited by the *Ichthyophāgi*, a name given to these tribes by the Greeks, from their living entirely on fish. They were a different race from the inhabitants of the more northern parts, which would seem to have been of the same stock with the Arii.

III. The army of Alexander marched through southern Gedrosia on their return from India, and suffered great hardships from scarcity of water and from the columns of moving sand. The armies of Semiramis and Cyrus, long before this, are said to have suffered still more severely from the same causes.

MEDIA.

I. Mēdia was bounded on the north by Armenia, on the south by Susiana and Persis, on the west by Assyria, and on the east by Parthia. It answers now to Azerbijan, Shirvan, Ghilan, the western half of Mazanderan, and the northern part of Irak. It was divided into three great districts, namely, Southern or Great Media, Media Atropatēne, or the northwestern part, and Northern Media.

II. The ancient writers with one voice extol the productiveness of Media, especially of the district of Atropatēne. It yielded grain, honey, oranges, citron, salt, wine, figs, silphium, excellent horses, &c. Its great productiveness, together with its excellent and numerous population, and also its being defended on every side by mountain chains, made Media one of the most important provinces of the Persian empire. On the northern borders was the chain of Mons Caspius; on the western and southern, that of Mons Parachoathras; on the east, that of Mons Zagrus; and branching off from this in a northwestern direction was Mons Iāsōnius. The rivers were unimportant. In the northwestern part of the country was a large salt lake called Spauta, now the Lake of Urmi.

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INHABITANTS, HISTORY, &c.

I. According to Herodotus, the Medes were originally called Arii, a word which contains the same root as Ar- $t\alpha i$, the ancient name of the Persians. Media originally formed part of the Assyrian empire, but its history as an independent kingdom is given so differently by Herodotus and Ctesias as to render it probable that the latter must refer to a different dynasty in eastern Asia.

II. According to the account of Herodotus, there were four kings of Media, namely, 1. Deioces, who reigned B.C. 710-657. 2. Phraortes, B.C. 657-635, who greatly extended the Median empire, subdued the Persians, and many other nations, and fell in an expedition against the Assyrians of Nineveh. 3. Cyaxares, B.C. 635-595, who completely organized the military force of the empire, and extended its boundaries as far west as the Halys. He also took Nineveh, and overthrew the Assyrian empire. 4. Astyages, B.C. 595-560, who was dethroned by his grandson Cyrus, and Media reduced to a Persian province.

PLACES IN GREAT MEDIA.

1. Ecbătăna, or, more correctly, Agbatana, the ancient capital of Media, founded by Deioces, and situated in a plain at the foot of a lofty mountain called Orontes. It was built on a conical kind of hill, and consisted of seven inclosures or walls, rising one above the other, and each of a different color, the sixth being silvered and the seventh gilt. Ecbatana, being in a high and mountainous country, was a favorite summer residence of the Persian monarchs, and subsequently of the Arsacidæ or Parthian kings, as well as those of the Sassanian or new Persian dynasty. It existed as a large and fortified city down even to the close of the fourth century. Its site is occupied by the modern Hamadan. 2. Rhaga, to the northeast of Ecbatana, and near the Caspian Gates. It was the largest city in Media. Seleucus Nicator rebuilt it on its having been destroyed by an earthquake, and changed the name to Europus. It was again destroyed in the Parthian wars, and rebuilt by Arsaces, who called it Arsacia. It still existed in the Middle Ages under the name of Rai, but was subsequently destroyed by the Tartars. This city is often mentioned in the book of Tobit, as the place where many of the Jews resided who had been carried away captive by Shalmaneser. Near Rhagæ was the Nisæan plain, celebrated for its breed of horses, which were considered in ancient times the best in Asia. Arrian informs us that there were fifty thousand horses reared in this plain in the time of Alexander, and that there were formerly as many as one hundred and fifty thousand. 3. Bagistăna, to the southwest of Ecbatana, on the great commercial road leading from the latter city to Ctesiphon. It is now Behistun. The name Bagistana is said to mean "the place of the Bagas," or deities, and in the vicinity of the place was Mount Bagistanus, which the Greeks made sacred to Jupiter. This mountain is now more correctly termed the "sacred rock of Behistun." According to the ancients, it had the figure of Semiramis cut upon it, with a Syrian inscription. Major Rawlinson, however, has placed the matter recently in its true light, and has shown the inscription on the rock, which is in cuneiform characters, to have been executed by order of Darius Hystaspis, and to be intended to mark not only the progress, but the permanent establishment of his power. The sculptured figures represent Ormuzd, the Persian deity, Darius, and his vanquished foes.

PLACES IN ATROPATENE.

Atropatēne, or the northwestern part of the country, derived its name from Atropates, a satrap of this province, who, after the death of Alexander, made

himself independent, and took the title of king, which his successors enjoyed for a long period. We have here, 1. Gaza, the chief city, on the eastern side of the Lake Spauta, and the summer residence of the kings of Atropatene. It was destroyed by Shah Abbas. Gaza lay between the present Tabris (or Taubreez) and Miana. 2. Phraata or Praaspa, to the southeast, a fortified place, situate on a height, and the winter residence of the kings. Its site is a few miles to the southeast of Ardebil. In the southwestern part of Atropatene was the district of Matiane, inhabited by the Matiani, with whom the Carduchi and Caspii were connected. The principal places here were, 1. Nande, now Selmas. 2. Nazada, near the defile now called Derbend-pust; and, 3. Alinza, near the modern Talvar.

NORTH MEDIA.

OF this district little is known. It was occupied by several warlike and independent tribes, among whom we may name, 1. The Caspii, among the Montes Caspii, between the rivers Cambyses and Cyrus. 2. The Cadusii, a powerful and warlike tribe along the Caspian Sea. On their coast stood Cyropolis, probably the modern Reshd. 3. The Dribyces, below the River Amardus, now the Sefid-Rud. 4. The Anariacæ, to the east, near Hyrcania. They possessed an oracle, the revelations of which were made to persons in their sleep. 5. The Mardi or Amardi, a powerful and wide-spread tribe, in the vicinity of the former, and very annoying to all the tribes around by reason of their predatory habits.

ARIA.

I. This extensive province was bounded on the north by Margiana and Bactriana, on the west by Parthia, on the south by Gedrosia, and on the east by India. Under the name of Aria, therefore, in this extended sense, are included both the Paropamisada and the province of Arachosia, so that Aria thus answers to part of Chorasan, nearly all Sedjestan, together with Afghanistan.

II. The more northern parts of the country were very productive, and yielded in particular a very good kind of wine. Gold and precious stones, especially sapphires, were also found here, in the *Sariphi Montes*, now the Mountains of *Sahar*, and in *Mons Bagous*, a part of the chain of Paropamisus, now the Mountains of *Gaur*.

III. Among the rivers of Aria may be mentioned, 1. The Arius, now Heri-Rud, which loses itself in the sand. 2. The Erymandrus, now the Hilmend, flowing into the Aria Palus, now the Lake of Zarrah. 3. The Arachotus, now, according to Wilson, the Urghundab, a tributary of the Hilmend.

IV. The more ancient capital of Aria was Artacoana, on the River Arius, and near to, if not identical with, the later capital Alexandrea Ariana, founded by Alexander, or, more probably,

named in honor of him. The site of this latter city is near the modern *Herat*. Aria, as here used, must not be confounded with the later and more extensive *Ariana*, which comprised the eastern portion of those countries which form the high land of Persia.

DIVISIONS, &c., OF ARIA.

- 1. Drangiāna, in the southwestern quarter of the country, and bordering on Gedrosia, Carmania, and the southeastern portion of Parthia. Its principal tribes were the Zarangi or Zarangai, and the Ariaspa. The chief town of the Zarangi was Prophthasia, on the Erymandrus, or Hilmend, not far from the modern Zarend or Zarang. The Ariaspa lay to the south of the former, and were also called Euergeta, the Greek translation of the Persian appellation bestowed upon them for the assistance which they had offered to Cyrus in his march through the deserts of Carmania. Their chief town was Ariaspe, near the present Pulki, to the south of Dushak.
- 2. Arachōsia, a rich and fruitful land on the frontiers of India, called by the Parthians "White India" ('Ivōukỳ $\lambda \epsilon v \kappa \dot{\gamma}$), on account of the white inhabitants that migrated hither from Oxus. Some, however, restrict this latter name to the district of Chorene, which Seleucus had given up to Sandrocottus, and where white inhabitants therefore were ruled over by an Indian king. The principal city at first was Arachōtus, the proper name of which was Cophen, and which was built, according to Pliny, by Semiramis. The latter capital was Alexandrēa or Alexandreopŏlis, on the River Arachotus. Its site must have been near Gundava, according to Mannert.
- 3. Paropamisada, a name given to the tribes inhabiting the highlands of Paropamisus. They were situate to the south of Bactriana. This country was the key to Persia from India. The cities here were, 1. Ortospana, called also Carura, probably the modern Cabul. Three roads met here, a northern one from Bactria, and an eastern and a southern one from India. Hence the spot was also termed $\dot{\eta}$ $\dot{\epsilon}\kappa$ $B\dot{\epsilon}\kappa\tau\rho\omega\nu$ $\tau\rho\dot{\epsilon}o\delta\sigma\varsigma$. 2. Alexandrea, a military colony of the Macedonians. 3. Gauzaca, now Ghazna, on the River Dilen.

PARTHIA.

- I. Parthia, called by Strabo and Arrian Parthyæa (Παρθυαία), meant originally the tract of country bounded on the north by Hyrcania, on the west by Media, on the south by Persis and Carmania, and on the east by Aria. When taken, however, in a more extended sense, the term Parthia denotes all the countries included in the later Parthian empire.
- II. Parthia, in its limited sense, was a country partly mountainous and partly a sand-waste, with a few fruitful valleys interspersed. It never formed, therefore, a separate province under the Persian dominion, but was attached to Hyrcania; and yet it is remarkable as the parent country of a race who established in after days a powerful and extensive Asiatic empire.

Divisions of the Country, &c.

1. Comisēne, a district in the northwest, still called Comis. Its chief town was Tagæ, in the range of Mount Labuta, and now the capital Dameghan. 2. Parthyēne, more in the centre, and the primitive settlement of the race. Here was Hecatompylon, the capital of Parthia. Its name, probably a Greek translation of some native term, arose from the circumstance of all the roads from the northern, eastern, and western provinces of the later Parthian empire meeting in this place. Through the district of Parthyene flowed the Zioberis or Stibætes, now Adschi-Su, into which empties the Rhidagus, and then the united waters took the name of Choatres. 3. Choarēne, a fruitful region on the western borders, and the pleasantest portion of Parthia. Its chief town was Apamēa Rhagiana, built by the Greeks. 4. Apavarctieēne or Apavortēne, in the southeast. Here was Dareium, a very strong city, founded by Arsaces I., and now probably Dehi-Muhammed.

PARTHIAN HISTORY.

I. The Parthians were apparently of Scythian origin. According to Justin, their name signified, in the Scythian language, "banished" or "exiles." At first they were subject to the Persian monarchy, afterward to Alexander, on whose death they espoused the cause of Eumenes, and afterward became subject successively to Antigonus and the Seleucidæ, until about B.C. 256, when they threw off the authority of the Syrian kings, and were formed into an independent kingdom under the rule of Arsaces I., from whom the succeeding kings received the title of Arsacidæ.

II. The reign of Arsaces was the beginning of the great Parthian empire, which was gradually increased at the expense of the Syrian kingdom in the west, and the Bactrian in the northeast; and at length extended from the Euphrates to the Indus, and from the Oxus to the Persian Gulf. In the time of Pliny it was divided into eighteen satrapies. This empire lasted from B.C. 256 to A.D. 226, when it yielded to the new Persian empire, or dynasty of the Sassanide.

HYRCANIA.

I. Hyrcania was bounded on the north by the deserts of Scythia, on the south by Parthia, on the east by Margiana, and on the west by the Caspian Sea and part of Media. It was surrounded by, and, for the most part, a mountainous country, except the part along the shore of the Caspian. This latter portion of Hyrcania was very fertile, producing grapes, figs, and corn in abundance. The mountainous parts were covered with forests, containing numerous wild animals, especially tigers. Bees also abounded here, and the wild honey was extremely plentiful.

II. Strabo says there were several towns in this country, and names the most important of them, but their position can not be ascertained. Arrian mentions Zadracarta as the capital, the same, no doubt, with the Carta of Strabo, and the Sy-

rinx of Polybius, this last being probably the Greek translation of its name. Some make it answer to the modern Jorjan or Gurkan, northeast of Asterabad; but this seems doubtful.

MARGIANA.

Margiana was bounded on the north by the Oxus and the deserts of Scythia, on the west by Hyrcania and Parthia, on the south by Aria, and on the east by Bactria. It comprised, therefore, the greater part of the eastern portion of Chorasan. The Roman prisoners taken by the Parthians at the defeat of Crassus were transplanted to this province. The country was partly productive and partly a sterile waste. It was famed for its wine and its large-sized clusters of grapes.

The chief river, and from which the country derived its name, was the Margus, now the Murghab or Meru-Rud, rising in the Montes Sariphi, and falling into the Oxus. The capital city was Antiochia Margiana, built by Antiochus Soter on the site of an earlier city named Alexandrea, which had been founded by Alexander, but destroyed by the barbarians. It was situated in a pleasing and fertile district, on the banks of the Margus, and was strongly fortified. Here the Romans, taken from Crassus's army, were placed. It is now, according to Mannert and Droysen, Meru-Rud or Mavrutschak; but more probably, according to others, Mawri or Schah Djehan. Besides this place we may mention Nisaa, to the west. The adjacent country is supposed to have been the native district of the famous Nisæan horses of Media, to which latter country the breed would seem to have been transferred by the Median kings.

BACTRIA.

I. Bactria or Bactriana was bounded on the north by Sogdiana, from which it was separated by the River Oxus; on the west by Margiana, on the south and east by Aria. This country was one of considerable extent, partly barren and waste, but in many parts of great fertility, watered by the Oxus and its tributaries, and peopled by a brave and hardy race, who were reckoned among the best soldiers in the service of Persia after Bactria became a Persian province. It answers now to the modern Balkh.

II. The principal river was the Oxus, now the Amoo or Jihon (p. 606), among the tributaries of which may be named, 1. The Dargidus or Bactrus, now the Balkh or Adirsia Dschas. 2. The Artamis, now the Dakash, flowing into, 3. the Zariaspis, now probably the Zuhrab.

PLACES IN BACTRIA.

1. Bactra, the capital city, situate on the River Bactrus, and now Balkh. Strabo and Pliny make its earlier name to have been Zariaspa, but Arrian and Ptolemy more correctly distinguish between the two places. 2. Zariaspa, now probably Hazarasp. Burnes is in favor of Schehr Subz. 3. Aornus, next to Bactra the most important city of the land. It had a strong and lofty citadel. Mannert errs in making Aornus the citadel of Bactra. Wilson regards the name Aornus as of Sanscrit origin (Awarana), and meaning "an inclosure" or "stockade."

HISTORY OF BACTRIA.

I. OF Bactria little is known prior to its subjugation by the Macedonians under Alexander. In the reign of Darius Hystaspis the Bactrians paid a tribute to that monarch of three hundred and sixty talents. In the time of Xerxes there were Bactrians in the army which he led against Greece. The province continued to be governed by the satraps of Persia down to the time of Darius Codomannus. In the final overthrow of that king by Alexander at the battle of Arbela, there was a body of Bactrians in his service, who were under the command of Bessus, the satrap of Bactria.

II. After the conquest of Bactria by Alexander, he built a city, which he gave to his Greek mercenaries, and to such of the Macedonians as were unfit, from age or wounds, for longer service. Such was the foundation of the Greek colony of Bactria, to which volunteers from the neighboring countries were admitted. This, however, was not the earliest settlement of Greeks in Bactria; for the first Darius transported thither a number of Greeks from Barce, in Africa; and the Branchidæ also, from Ionia, were planted here by Xerxes.

III. From the death of Alexander, 323 B.C., to B.C. 255, Bactria formed part of the possessions of Seleucus and his successors, and was governed by lieutenants. About the last-mentioned date, Theodotus, in the reign of Antiochus II. of Syria, assumed the government, and founded an empire which lasted one hundred and twenty years. A difference of opinion exists as to the names and numbers of the Greek kings of Bactria during this period. The most correct list is that which has been given by Bayer, in his "Historia Regni Gracorum Bactriani," Petropol., 1738.

SOGDIANA.

Sogdiana lay between the upper Oxus and the upper Iaxartes, by which latter river it was separated from Central Asia. It was bounded on the west by Scythia and the Oxii Montes, and on the east by the Montes Comeda. It comprised the greater part of the modern Turkestan, and also the kingdom of Bukhara, the most delightful part of the latter of which is still called Sogd, and is regarded as one of the three paradises of the East.

The river *Iaxartes*, now the *Sir*, has already been described (p. 606). Among its tributaries may be mentioned, 1. The *Demus*, now *Marghinan*. 2. The *Bascatis*, now the *Fersan*. Among the cities, of which there are many in this country, the following deserve notice: 1. *Maracanda*, less correctly *Paracanda*, now

Samarcand, on the River Polytimētus, now the Sogd. 2. Cyreschata, the last city of Cyrus's dominions in this quarter, situate to the northeast of the former, in the mountains about the Iaxartes. It was built by Cyrus, and had a strong citadel. Alexander destroyed the place, but it was afterward rebuilt. 3. Gaza, between the preceding and Alexandrea Ultima. It was plundered and destroyed by the soldiers of Alexander. 4. Alexandrea Ultima ('Αλεξάνδρεια ἐσχάτη), on the Iaxartes, founded by Alexander as a protection for his dominions in this quarter against the neighboring barbarians, and peopled with Grecian auxiliaries and worn-out Macedonian veterans. It stood near the modern Khodjend. 5. Alexandrea Oziana, to the southwest of the preceding, on the River Oxus, near the spot where the modern Karschi stands.

The rude and, for the most part, free tribes on the banks of the Iaxartes and Oxus, and in the mountains between those streams, were divided into two races. The Dahæ or Daæ, on the lower course of the Oxus, and in the desert toward the Caspian Sea, were Tartar tribes, Turkomans, &c. The Massagĕtæ and Sacæ, in the east, occupied, the former the country of the Kirgish Tartars, the latter Little Bukharia, &c. The Sacæ were nomads, and the ancestors, probably, of the modern Afghans. The Persians appear to have given the name of Sacæ to all races of Tartar origin, and that of Massagetæ to those of Mongol origin.

(B.) SOUTHEASTERN ASIA.

INDIA.

I. India was bounded on the north by Scythia extra Imaum and part of Serica, on the east by the country of the Sinæ and the Eastern Ocean, on the south by the Mare Erythræum, and on the west by the Mare Erythræum and Aria. It was divided by Ptolemy the geographer into two great parts, namely, India intra Gangem, or India west of the Ganges, and India extra Gangem, or India east of the Ganges. Under this latter name was included what answers now not only to the remaining part of India, but also Thibet, the Birman Empire, Ava, Sumatra, Java, &c.

II. Among the mountains of India may be mentioned, 1. The range called Paropamīsus, and now $Hindu\ Cush$, coming in from the northwest, and separating India in that quarter from Bactria. 2. $Em\bar{o}di\ Montes$, the eastern continuation of the preceding, and forming a portion of the great chain of Himmaleh. 3. Imaus, running on from the $Emodi\ Montes$ into the remote east, and separating India from Scythia. It is now, in part, the Himalaya range or Himmaleh Mountains.

III. Among the rivers of India may be named, 1. The *Indus* (p. 605). 2. The *Ganges* (p. 605). 3. The *Mophis*, now the *Mhye* or *Mahi*, flowing into the *Barygazenus Sinus* or Gulf of *Cambay*. 4. The *Namadus*, now *Nerbuddah*, flowing into the same gulf. 5. The *Nanaguna*, now the *Taptee*, flowing

into the same gulf. 6. The Chaberis, now the Cavery, emptying into the Sinus Gangeticus or Bay of Bengal. 7. The Mæsõlus, to the north, now the Krishnah or Kistnah. 8. The Goaris, now the Godavery. 9. The Mandas, now Mahanuddy. 10. The Doanas, now Ava, on the eastern side of the Sinus Gangeticus. 11. The Dorius, now Pegu. 12. The Serus, now Menam, emptying into the Sinus Magnus or Gulf of Siam.

INDIA HOW FAR KNOWN TO THE WESTERN NATIONS.

I. Commerce between India and the western nations of Asia appears to have been carried on from the earliest historical times. This trade appears to have been carried on by means of the Arabians, who brought the produce of India from the Malabar coast to Hadramaut in the southwestern part of Arabia, or to Gerra on the Persian Gulf, from which places it was carried by means of caravans to Petra, where it was purchased by Phænician merchants. A great quantity of Indian articles was also brought from the Persian Gulf up the Euphrates as far as Circesium or Thapsacus, and thence carried across the Syrian desert into Phænicia. The conquest of Idumæa by David gave the Jews possession of the harbors of Elath and Ezion-geber on the Red Sea, from which ships sailed to Ophir, which was probably an emporium of the African and Indian trade in Arabia.

II. The knowledge which the Greeks possessed respecting India previous to the time of Alexander was but scanty, being confined to the parts west of the Ganges. Herodotus and Ctesias merely relate what they had collected from the Persians, whose monarch, Darius Hystaspis, had penetrated into the Panjab; such are the descriptions of the birds and beasts of that country, its fine wools, the bold and strong dogs of the Panjab, the crocodiles of the Indus, &c.

III. The expedition of Alexander into India first gave the Greeks a correct idea of the western parts of that country. Alexander did not advance farther than the *Hyphasis*; but he followed the course of the Indus to the ocean, and afterward sent Nearchus to explore the coast of the Indian Ocean as far as the Persian Gulf. The Panjab was inhabited, at the time of Alexander's invasion, by many independent nations, who were as distinguished for their courage as their descendants the Rajpoots.

IV. After the death of Alexander, Seleucus made war against Sandracottus, king of the Prasii, a powerful people on the banks of the Ganges, and was the first Greek who advanced as far as that river. This Sandracottus is probably the Chandragupta of the Hindus. Megasthenes, and after him Daimachus, embassadors of the Syrian monarchs, resided for many years at Palibothra, the capital of the Prasii, which stood, probably, near the modern Patna. From the work which Megasthenes wrote on India, later writers, even in the time of the Roman empire, such as Strabo and Arrian, appear to have derived their principal knowledge of the country.

V. The knowledge which the Romans possessed of India beyond Cape Comorin was exceedingly vague and defective. Strabo describes the Ganges as flowing into the sea by one mouth; and though Pliny gives a long list of Indian nations, which had not previously been mentioned by any Greek or Roman writer, we have no satisfactory account of any part of India except the descrip-

tion of the western coast by Arrian. Ptolemy, who lived about one hundred years later than Pliny, gives us the names of many towns on the Coromandel coast and the Bay of Bengal, and is the earliest writer who attempts to describe the countries to the east of the Ganges; but there is great difficulty in determining the position of any of the places enumerated by him, in consequence of the great error he made in the form of the peninsula, which, according to him, stretched in its length from west to east instead of from north to south. Ptolemy appears to have derived his information from the Alexandrine merchants, who only sailed to the Malabar coast, and could not, therefore, have any accurate knowledge of the eastern parts of India, and still less of the countries beyond the Ganges.

From what has been remarked, our notice of places in India must of necessity be a very brief one. In giving them, we shall follow the two main divisions.

PLACES IN INDIA INTRA GANGEM.

1. Nagara, on the northwestern frontier, now Nagar. It was also called by the Greeks Nysa and Dionysopolis. 2. Taxila, to the northeast, the residence of King Taxiles when Alexander invaded India. Some make it answer to the modern Attock, but incorrectly. 3. Caspira, to the northeast, the capital of the Caspirai, whose country answered to a part of Caschmire. 4. Bucephala, on the Hydaspes, founded by Alexander on the spot where his horse Bucephalus died of old age. Its site is supposed to be at the modern village of Mung. 5. Nicaa, on the same river, and opposite Bucephala. It was founded by Alexander in commemoration of his victory here over Porus. The ruins are probably those at Udinagur. 6. Alexandri Ara, altars, twelve in number, erected by Alexander on the banks of the Hyphasis, to mark the limit of his progress eastward. 7. Mallorum Metropolis, the capital of the Malli, a people with whom Alexander came into contact when descending the Indus. It answers probably to the modern Moultan. The Oxydraca were lower down the river, at the attack on whose capital, probably the modern Outch, Alexander endangered his life. 8. Pattāla, in the island or delta of Pattalene, at the mouth of the Indus. Its site is occupied by the modern Tatta. The country from Pattalene upward, along both banks of the Indus, was called Indoscythia, from the Scythian tribes which had settled there after they had overthrown the Bactrian empire. The Sinus Canthi or Irinus, below the mouth of the Indus, is now the Gulf of Cutch. We then come to the peninsula of Larice, now Guzerat, the gulf below which has been already mentioned. The coast below this was called Dachinabades, from dachanos, "south," the Sanscrit dakschina, whence is derived the modern name Deccan.

On the eastern side of the peninsula, passing by Taprobane, now Ceylon, which will be considered along with the other Indian isles, we may name, 1. Colchi, now Collatoor, with the Cory Promontorium near it, now Ramanan Khor, and whence comes the modern name Coromandel given to the whole coast. Inland was the kingdom of Pandion, famed for its pearl trade. The Sinus Agaricus is now Palk's Bay. 2. Malanga, now Madras. 3. Maliarpha, now Maliapur. 4. Masolia, a district famed for its diamond mines. Above, on the coast, were the Calinga, whose name is still preserved in that of the modern city of Colingapatam. 5. Gange, the capital of the Gangarida, on one of the arms of the Ganges, near its mouth, and a great mart for cotton stuffs, nard, Chinese wares, &c. Above the Gangaridæ were the Prasii, whose capital was Palibothra (in Sanscrit Pataliputra), the residence of Sandracottus. The position of this city

has been much disputed. Robinson places it at *Allahabad*, but Rennel, more correctly, in the neighborhood of *Patna*, near the confluence of the Ganges and the *Sone*, the ancient *Sonus* or *Erannaboas*.

PLACES IN INDIA EXTRA GANGEM.

India beyond the Ganges was very little known. What was called the island of Chryse corresponds to the modern kingdom of Ava; and the Aurea Chersonesus, either to Malacca, as D'Anville, Rennel, and Mannert think, or to the southern part of Pegu, as Gosselin and some others maintain. We may name, besides, 1. Pentăpölis, to the south of the modern Candel. 2. Tacosanna, now Arracen. 3. Tamala, a trading-place on the western coast of Pegu, now Baroban. 4. Berobe, near the modern Tavay, in Siam. 5. Tacola, in the Aurea Chersonesus. 6. Sabanna, a trading-place, near the modern Tantan Velha. 7. Balonga, on the eastern coast, a noted place for pirates. 8. Cortatha, capital of the Daoni.

ISLANDS OF INDIA.

I. Taprobăne, now Ceylon. Ptolemy says it was also called Salīce, and that this last was the native denomination of the island. In Sanscrit writings it is called Lunka, "holy" or "resplendent;" in the Singalese annals, Sinhaladwipa, or "the island of lions." The Arabs name it Serendib, which is only a corruption of the genuine name; and the Portuguese, Selan, whence our Ceylon.

II. Jabadii Insulæ, now Java. The ancient name signified, according to Ptolemy, "Barley Island," in consequence of its great fertility in this species of grain. The same writer says that it also yielded gold.

III. Satyrorum Insulæ tree, now Borneo, Palawan, and Celebes. Ptolemy says the inhabitants had the form of Satyrs, whence the name of the islands.

IV. Maniolæ Insulæ decem, now the Philippine islands, named from their inhabitants the Maniolæ, who were anthropophagous.

SINÆ.

The country of the Sine, according to Ptolemy, was bounded on the north by Serica, on the west by India, and on the east by unknown regions. It answered, therefore, to Cambodia, Cochin-China, &c. Even in these early periods, entrance into the country was forbidden to foreigners, so that Ptolemy only knew of their chief place, Acadara, probably the modern Lao.

There was also another nation named $Sin\alpha$, to the east of Serica, who were probably settled in Shen-si, the most westerly province of China, immediately adjoining the great wall. In this province was a kingdom called Tsin, which probably gave name to these $Sin\alpha$.

2. CENTRAL ASIA.

SARMATIA ASIATICA.

Sarmatia Asiatica was bounded on the west by the Cimmerian Bosporus, the Palus Mæotis, and the River Tanaïs or Don, which last separated it from Sarmatia Europea, already described (p. 235); on the southwest by the Euxine; on the south by the range of Caucasus, separating it from Colchis, Iberia, and Albania; on the west by the Caspian, the lower part of the Rha or Wolga, and Scythia intra Imaum; and on the north by a Terra Incognita. The country was, for the most part, either mountainous, or else consisted of broad steppelands, over which roamed numerous nomadic tribes. The inhabitants, however, on the eastern shore of the Palus Maotis were of more settled habits, and supported themselves by agriculture and fishing.

PRINCIPAL TRIBES.

Basilicai Sarmata (Βασιλικαΐοι Σαρμάται), around the sources of the Rha, and the same, probably, with the Royal Scythians of Herodotus. 2. Hippophagi, or feeders on horse-flesh, to the east. 3. Phthirophagi, or feeders on fir-cones, to the east of the upper part of the Rha. 4. Perierbidi, a powerful tribe on the Tanais, near the upper extremity of the Palus Maotis. 5. Siraceni or Siraci, another powerful nation, who sent to King Pharnaces twenty thousand horse as auxiliaries. Their capital was Uspe, and they are probably still represented by the Circassians, who fled before the Alans and Huns into the fastnesses of Caucasus. 6. Aorsi, a still more important nation, the Adorsi of Tacitus. In Strabo's time they roved in the more northern parts near the Don. They resided originally on the northwestern shore of the Caspian, and had in their hands the whole of the transit trade in Indian and Babylonian wares, which they conveyed westward on camels to the Palus Maotis, after receiving them from the Bactrian and Indian merchants, who brought them down the Oxus and Iaxartes. 7. Maota, along the eastern shore of the Palus Maotis. They were subdivided into numerous small tribes. 8. Achai, on the northeastern coast of the Euxine, fabled to have been descended from a band of Achæi who settled here after the Trojan war. 9. Heniochi, to the east of the former, fabled to be the descendants of a band of Spartans, left behind here by the Argonauts.

PLACES IN SARMATIA ASIATICA.

1. Pityus, on the coast of the Euxine, near its northeastern extremity, and of Grecian origin. It was destroyed by the Heniochi, but afterward rebuilt, and regarded by the Romans as an important frontier city. 2. Sinda, a commercial place on the Bosporus, belonging to the Sindi or Sindici. 3. Gorgippia, inland, the capital of the Sindi. 4. Phanagoria, to the north, on the Bosporus, a flourishing commercial city, founded by the Milesians, and opposite to Panticapaum in the Tauric Chersonese. It became subsequently the chief city of the kingdom of Bosporus, and the staple-place of all the wares brought down the Palus Maotis for the people of Caucasus. It was destroyed in the sixth century by the Huns. 5. Tanaīs, a flourishing commercial city, at the southern mouth of the River Tanaīs, and at the northeastern extremity of the Palus Maotis. It was founded by the Milesians, and became a great mart for all the surrounding tribes, who here exchanged peltries and slaves for wine, clothing, &c. It fell at last under the sway of the kings of Bosporus, and on attempting subsequently to

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free itself from the yoke, was destroyed by Polemo, the contemporary of Augustus and Tiberius. It was afterward rebuilt, but never attained to its former prosperity.

COLCHIS.

Colchis was bounded on the north by the range of Caucasus, on the south by Armenia, on the east by Iberia, and on the west by the Euxine. It comprised not only the modern Mingrelia, but also a part of Imireti. The country was very fertile, and abounded in timber well adapted for ship building, in various kinds of fruits, and in flax. The inhabitants were famed for their linen manufactures, which formed a considerable article of export. The name of Colchis appears in the early legends of the Greeks as connected with the expedition of the Argonauts, and the story of Jason and Medea.

INHABITANTS, PLACES, &c.

1. According to Herodotus, the Colchi were originally from Egypt, and formed part of the army with which Sesostris invaded Seythia. The curled hair and swarthy complexion, however, on which the historian relies principally in support of his position, no longer exist in modern Mingrelia. Ritter, with much more probability, deduces the origin of the Colchi from India. Numerous petty tribes are mentioned by the ancient geographers, forming in the aggregate the Colchian nation. Of these the *Lazi* may be mentioned here, since their name was afterward applied by the Romans to the Colchians in general, and from them are supposed to be descended the modern *Lazes*, in *Lazestan*.

2. The chief river of Colchis was the Phāsis, already mentioned (p. 606). Among the more important cities were, 1. Dioscurias, on the coast, an old Milesian colony, and the centre of traffic with the neighboring tribes. Under the Romans it took the name of Sebastöpölis. 2. Sarapana, to the southeast, a strong fortress, in a narrow pass on the confines of Iberia, through which flowed the Phasis. It is now Scharapani. 3. Phāsis, on the southern bank of the River Phasis, near its mouth, and founded by the Milesians. It was afterward incorporated in Pontus. 4. £a, inland, the fabled residence of King Æetes, father of Medea. It was said to have been situate on the River Phasis, and was sought to be identified with the later Male. 5. Archaopōlis, the later capital of the whole country, in the fertile and very populous district of Muchirēsis, on the confines of Iberia. It was situate on a steep rock, accessible only on one side, on the banks of the Phasis. 6. Cutatisium, a frontier fortress on the Phasis, now Kchitais, capital of the modern Imireti.

IBERIA.

Ibēria was bounded on the north by Caucasus, on the south by Armenia, on the west by Colchis, and on the east by Albania. It answers nearly to the present Georgia. The ancient writers describe the country as extremely fertile, well peopled, and the inhabitants as having made some progress in

civilization. The central part was a plain, watered by the River Cyrus and its branches. Lucullus and Pompey first carried the Roman arms into Iberia. Eutropius says that the King of Iberia paid homage to Trajan, who at the same time gave a king to the neighboring country of Albania.

PLACES IN IBERIA.

1. Harmozica, on the River Cyrus, near the modern Digoli. 2. Seumara, on the River Aragus, now Samthauro, near Teflis. 3. Juroeipaach (Ἰουροειπαάχ), a strong fortress, near the sources of the Aragus, and commanding the pass called Pyla Caucasia (less correctly Pyla Caspia) leading through the range of Caucasus from the modern Mosdok to Teflis. It is a narrow valley of four days' journey. Pliny calls the pass an enormous work of nature, which has cut a long opening among the rocks, that an iron gate would be almost sufficient to close. The pass is now called Dariel.

ALBANIA

Albānia was bounded on the north by Caucasus, on the east by the Caspian, on the west by Iberia, and on the south by Armenia. It answers now to Daghestan and Lazestan. The Romans were best acquainted with the southern part, which Strabo describes as a kind of paradise, and in fertility and mildness of climate gives it the preference to Egypt. Trajan's expeditions made the northern and mountainous part better known.

INHABITANTS, PLACES, &c.

1. Albania evidently derives its name from its mountainous character in the northern and central parts, the root of the term being the Celtic Alph or Alb (p. 158). The inhabitants appear to have been of Scythian origin, probably a branch of the Massageta, and the progenitors of the European Alani.

2. Among the places in Albania we may name, 1. Gatara, on the coast of the Caspian, to the north of the mouth of the Cyrus, near the naphtha sources of the modern Baku. 2. Albana, on the coast, north of the River Albanus. 3. Camechia, now Shamachia, in the modern Schirwan. 4. Chabala or Cabalaca, near the Albanian pass, or Pyla Albania. This, according to the common opinion, is now the pass of Derbend, along the shore of the Caspian. It seems more correct, however, to make it a defile passing through the territory of Ooma-Khan, along the frontier of Daghestan.

SCYTHIA.

I. The term Scythia was originally given to a part of Europe, and was for a long time restricted to that country. This Scythia was, according to Herodotus, a square, of which each side measured four thousand stadia, one side being two thousand stadia from the Ister to the Borysthenes, and two thousand from the Borysthenes to the Palus Mactis, both measurements being along the coast; and another side being four thousand stadia, measured from the Euxine to the Melanchlani. There is considerable difficulty in determining the boundaries of

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the Scythia of Herodotus; but it may be said in general terms to have comprised the southeastern part of Europe, between the Carpathian Mountains and the Tanais or Don.

H. Different accounts are given of the origin of these Scythians; but the statement which Herodotus considered the most probable ascribed to them an Asiatic origin. According to this account, they were driven from their settlements to the north of the Araxes by the Massagetæ, and, after crossing that river, descended into Europe, and drove out the Cimmerians from the country which was afterward called Scythia. The date of their migration into Europe may be determined with tolerable accuracy, if the irruption of the Cimmerians into Lydia in the reign of Ardys (about B.C. 640) was the immediate consequence of their defeat by the Scythians.

III. The Scythians seem to have been a Mongolian people from the description which Hippocrates gives of their appearance, and Herodotus of their customs and habits. Hippocrates speaks of their gross and bloated bodies, their joints buried in fat, their swollen bellies, and their scanty growth of hair. They were divided, as the Mongols have always been, into various hordes, which were all, in the time of Herodotus, dependent on the horde of the Royal Scythians, who dwelt above the Palus Mæotis. The general and genuine name of the Scythians is said to have been Scoloti; the name of Scytha ($\Sigma\kappa i\theta a\iota$), or Scythians, was given to them by the Greeks.

IV. The only two important events in the history of Scythia mentioned by Herodotus are, 1. The invasion of Media by the Scythians in the reign of Cyaxares (B.C. 635-595), and their conquest of Asia as far as the confines of Egypt, which they held for twenty-eight years; and, 2. The invasion of Scythia by Darius Hystaspis, in which the Persians were unsuccessful.

V. In subsequent times the Scythians lost all their power. The Getæ conquered a great portion of the west of their country, and the Sauromatæ pressed upon them from the east. The latter of these eventually obtained possession of the greater part of Scythia, and gave the name of Sarmatia to the whole country. In the time of Pliny the Scythians had become extinct as a people; their place was occupied by the Germans and Sarmatians, and the Scythian name was confined to the most remote and unknown tribes of the north.

VI. The name of Scythia began to be applied to the northern parts of Asia in the Macedonian period. Herodotus distinctly separates from Scythia all nations east of the Tanais, such as the Thyssageta, Issedones, &c., and this fixed use of the word still subsisted at the time of Alexander's conquest of Asia. But when the Macedonians found on the Iaxartes nations resembling the Scythians, they gave the name of Scythia to this part of Asia, and thus an Asiatic Scythia was supposed lying to the east of the true one. This is the Scythia Proper of Strabo, as the ancient Scythia had in his time become Sarmatia.

vII. In the time of Ptolemy, the name of Scythia was given to the country between Asiatic Sarmatia and Scrica. It was bounded on the south by Hyrcania, Margiana, Sogdiana, and India. Its limits to the north were undefined. It was divided into two parts by the Imaus, now Altar and Chaltar, a range of mountains running in a northeasterly direction from the Himalaya. The western part was called Scythia intra Imaum, and the eastern Scythia extra Imaum.

SERICA.

I. Serica was bounded on the west by Scythia extra Imaum, on the east by the Sina, on the north by a Terra Incognita, and on the south by India extra Gangem. It comprised, therefore, the modern Bucharia, Kotschotei, and a part

of northwestern China. It is described by the ancient writers as surrounded and traversed by mountains, as, for instance, the Montes Auxacii, a part of the chain of Altai, on the north; the Montes Asmirai, the western part of the modern Da-Uri chain, in the central parts; and the Montes Casii, now a part of the Khara range, and likewise Mount Ottorocorras, the eastern extremity of the Emodi Montes, in the south. The principal rivers were, 1. The Echardes, probably the modern Selenga; and, 2. The Bautes or Bautisus, now the Hoang-Ho.

II. Serica means the land of the Seres; the appellation Seres, however, was not the native name of the inhabitants of the country, but one given them from the silk, for the manufacture of which their country was famous among the western nations, and which formed their great article of export. The root of the term is the Greek word $\sigma \acute{\eta} \rho$, "a silk-worm," itself probably of Oriental origin. The introduction of the culture of silk into Europe did not take place until the sixth year of the reign of Justinian, when some eggs of the silk-worm were brought to Constantinople by two monks, who also furnished the requisite information for the mode of manufacturing silk.

III. The principal nation in Serica was the *Issēdŏnes*, whose capital was *Sera*, which Mannert makes identical with *Singan*, in the Chinese province of *Shen-si*. Heeren, however, declares in favor of *Pekin*.

AFRICA.

1. NAME.

I. The name Africa was first introduced into Europe by the Romans, who gave this appellation originally to the country around Carthage, the first part of the continent with which they became acquainted, and the term is said to have been derived from a small Carthaginian district on the northern coast. Hence, even when the name had become applied to the whole continent, there still remained, in Roman geography, the district of Africa Propria, on the Mediterranean coast, corresponding to the modern Tunis and part of Tripoli.

II. The Greek writers, on the other hand, always call the continent of Africa by the name of Libya ($\dot{\eta}$ $\Lambda\iota\dot{b}\dot{v}\eta$), an appellation often employed in this same sense by the Roman poets; whereas the Roman prose writers, when they make use of the term Libya, merely mean by it the region extending along the coast from the Syrtis Major to Egypt, and stretching inland to the desert.

2. PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

I. Herodotus, the earliest extant Greek author who has transmitted to us any information about Africa, has given a proof of his limited acquaintance with it by the very simple division which he makes of its inhabitants. All the native tribes in the northern part he calls by the general name of Libyans, and those

in the south Æthiopians. Egypt, according to his system, hardly belongs to Africa, but lies like an isolated slip between the two adjacent continents. He considered Africa as terminating north of the equinoctial line, and asserts that it is surrounded by water except at the narrow neck now called the *Isthmus of Suez*. One reason for this latter belief was apparently the story of the circumnavigation of Africa, by some Phœnicians, in the reign and by the orders of Necho, king of Egypt, between B.C. 610 and 594. The truth of this story is now regarded as extremely doubtful.

II. Another ancient voyage, somewhat better authenticated, is that made by the Carthaginian Hanno, who is said to have sailed from Carthage through the Straits of Gibraltar, for the purpose of establishing some colonies along the Atlantic coast of the present empire of *Morocco*. From the account of this voyage which has come down to us, it is very probable that he passed considerably to the south of the *Senegal* River, but hardly further than the coast of *Sierra Leone*. The period of this voyage is uncertain; it was probably before B.C. 500.

III. When the Greeks were settled in Egypt under Ptolemy, son of Lagus (B.C. 323), they necessarily became better acquainted with the Red Sea and the course of the Nile; and from this epoch we may date the extension of that trade with India, by which the products of the great Asiatic peninsula were more generally diffused over the ancient world. One of the most curious documents with respect to ancient navigation on the eastern coast of Africa is contained in the Periplus of the Erythræan Sea, which goes under the name of Arrian. This work, which was probably compiled from various log-books and journals, may be assigned to about the time of Pliny the elder, or perhaps to an earlier period. The extreme south point mentioned on the African coast is Rhapta, probably the modern Quiloa.

IV. From the tables of Ptolemy, the Greek geographer, it appears that the coast of western Africa was known, probably through the navigation of the Carthaginians and Romans, as far as to 11° north of the line. Whether the ancient geographers were acquainted with the countries south of the Great Desert, and with the upper part of the River Quorra, commonly called the Niger, can not be determined positively, although probability is strongly on the side of this opinion. The story related by Herodotus concerning the young Nasamonians is entitled to great respect, because there are real facts corresponding to the description given by them of the country which they explored. Besides, it can hardly be imagined that the powerful state of Carthage, which employed so many elephants in war, and carried on so extensive a commerce, could be altogether ignorant of the countries in question.

V. When the Romans became masters of northern Africa, we might expect to find them attempting, according to their usual policy, to enlarge their empire or their influence to the south; and we have, in fact, in Pliny, a distinct account of Suetonius Paullinus (A.D. 41) crossing the great mountains of Atlas, and going some distance in a southern direction. In Ptolemy, also, we have an account of a Roman officer, named Maternus, who set out from the neighborhood of Tripoli, and went a four months' march to the south, which must have brought him into the latitude of Timbuctoo, and into the vicinity of the Lake Tchad. If the story be true, the great river, called by modern geographers the Niger, might thus have been known to the Romans.

3. MOUNTAINS.

1. Mons Atlas, a celebrated range in the northwestern part of Africa. It is

divided by modern geographers into two leading chains, the Greater Atlas, running through the kingdom of Morocco as far south as the desert of Sahara, and the Lesser Atlas, extending from Morocco toward the northeast to the northern coast. The native name of these mountains, according to Strabo and Pliny, was Dyrin, and the chain at the present day bears among the Arabs the name of Darah or Daran. The Romans probably knew more about the regions of Atlas than we do, since they colonized many parts of it. As far, however, as we can collect, it was only the highest and western portion of the range, in the present kingdom of Morocco, to which they applied the name of Atlas. It was here that the fables of the Greeks placed the Titan Atlas, the brother of Prometheus, supporting the heavens on his shoulders. A later legend made him to have been transformed into the mountain itself. 2. Montes Luna or Mons Luna (τὸ τῆς Σελήνης ὄρος), in central Africa, mentioned by Ptolemy as a very lofty and snow-covered mountain range, at the bottom of which were two large lakes, from which the Nile took its rise. This locality still remains undiscovered, and is called at the present day by the familiar appellation of "the Mountains of the Moon."

4. RIVERS.

1. Nilus, or the Nile, rising, according to the common account, in the Mountains of the Moon, in central Africa. It appears, from the most recent researches, that the stream is first called Bahr-cl-Abiad, or "the White River," and flows in a northeastern direction to 15° 34' N. latitude, where it receives, on its right bank, the Abawi, or Bahr-el-Azrek, or "Blue River," coming from Abyssinia. The "White River" appears to have been the true Nile of the ancient geographers, but in modern times it is only after its confluence with the Abawi that the united stream is known as the Nile. The Abawi is the Astapus of the ancient geographers. The principal affluents after this are the Maleg, apparently unknown to the ancients, and the Tacazze or Atbarrah, the ancient Astaboras. both on the right from Abyssinia. From its junction with the Tacazze to its entrance into the Mediterranean, a distance of fifteen hundred miles, the Nile receives no more tributaries. An account of the mouths of the Nile will be given under the head of Egypt. 2. Niger (Νίγειρ), called by the Roman writers Nigris, and by modern geographers Niger, a great river of central Africa, now ascertained to be the Quorra, and falling into the Atlantic. It is the same with the ποταμός μέγας, or "Great River" of Libya mentioned by Herodotus. The name Niyeip first occurs in Ptolemy, who speaks also of another river which he calls the Γείρ (Gir), and which appears to be the Om Teymam of Burckhardt. The other rivers of Africa will be mentioned under their respective countries.

5. PROMONTORIES.

		•			 		
1.	Notium	Promon	toriun	n		Cape	Roxo.
2.	Hesperia	um Pro	montor	$\cdot ium$		Cape	Verd.
3.	Ryssadi	um Pro	monto	rium		Cape	Blanco.
4.	Arsinari	ium Pro	monto	orium		Cape	Corveiro.
5.	Gannari	a Prom	ontori	um.		Cape	Nun.
6.	Atlas M	ajor .				Cape	Boiador.
7.	Cotes P	romonto	rium			Cape	Spartel.
8	Abula P	romonte	orium			Cane	Ximiera.

- 9. Russadir Promontorium . . . Cape de Tres Forcas
- 10. Metagonium Promontorium . . Cape Honneine (?).
- 11. Apollinis Promontorium . . . Cape Mostagan.
- 12. Tretum Promontorium. . . . Cape Sebba Rus.
- 13. Hermæum Promontorium . . . Cape Bon.
- 14. Phycus Promontorium Cape Sem.
- 15. Arōmata Promontorium . . . Cape Guardafui.
- 16. Prasum Promontorium . . . Cape del Gado.

Obs. The Notium Promontorium is Hanno's Nóτου Κέρας, the southernmost point of his voyage. D'Anville makes it Cape St. Anna. The Hesperium Promontorium is Hanno's Έσπέρου Κέρας. The modern name of the Metagonium Promontorium is uncertain, though commonly given as Cape Honneine. The Cotes Promontorium is called Ampelusia by Mela.

6. MAIN DIVISIONS.

Africa will be considered by us under the following main divisions, beginning from the Atlantic coast on the west: 1.

Mauritania. 2. Numidia. 3. Africa Propria. 4. Regio Syrtica. 5. Cyrenaïca. 6. Marmarica. 7. Ægyptus. 8. Æthiopia. 9. Libya Interior.

1. MAURITANIA.

I. Mauritānia derived its name from its inhabitants, the Mauri or Maurusii (Μαυρούσιοι), and was bounded on the west by the Atlantic, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Gætulia, and on the east by Numidia, from which it was separated originally by the River Molocath or Mulucha, the modern Mulwia or Mohalon. In this sense, therefore, the term Mauritania indicated a country corresponding to the modern Morocco and Fez.

II. At a subsequent period, however, namely, in the reign of the Emperor Claudius, A.D. 43, a new arrangement was made, and all that part of Numidia which lay between the Molocath and the Ampsagas, now Wadi-al-Kebir, was added to Mauritania, which latter country now was divided into two provinces, Mauritania Tingitana, deriving its name from Tingis, now Tangier, and answering to Mauritania Proper, and Mauritania Cæsariensis, being the new portion added at the expense of Numidia. Mauritania Cæsariensis was afterward subdivided into two provinces: the western part, namely, retained the appellation of Cæsariensis; but the eastern

was called Mauritania Sitifensis, from Sitifi, now Setif, a town on the borders of Numidia.

PLACES IN MAURITANIA.

In Mauritania Tingitana we have, 1. Russadir, now Melillah, a sea-port and Roman colony, west of the Molocath, and near the promontory of Russadir. It was the only mart on the whole coast of the Metagonitæ. 2. Tingis, to the west, at the entrance of the straits of Gibraltar, and now Tangier. It received special marks of favor from Augustus Cæsar, and became a Roman colony under Claudius, who made it the capital of the province. 3. Zilis or Zelis, a little below the Cotes Promontorium, and now Arzilla. It was made a Roman colony by Augustus, under the name of Julia Constantia Zilis, and placed under the same jurisdiction as the province of Batica in Spain. 4. Linx or Lixus, thirty-two Roman miles south of Zilis, and now Larache or El Araisch. It was situate on a river of the same name, which must not, however, be confounded with the great River Lixus mentioned in the account of Hanno's voyage, the latter being probably the modern St. Cyprian, the former the Luccos. 5. Banasa, a Roman colony, called Valentia, fifty Roman miles south of Lixus, and situate on the Subur, now the Schoo. 6. Sala, fifty miles south of the Subur, and at the mouth of the River Sala. It was the southernmost of the Roman colonies in this quarter, and its site, still marked by extensive remains, is near the modern Salce. The coast below this was a desert waste. Inland we may name Volubilis, to the east of Sala, a Roman colony, now the deserted city of Walili.

In Mauritania Casariensis we may name, 1. Igilgilis, on the coast, near the confines of Numidia, and in what was subsequently Mauritania Sitifcnsis. It was made a Roman colony under Augustus, and was the chief mart for the neighboring communities. It is now Jigcl or Gigeri. 2. Salda, to the west, on the coast, now, according to some, Schurfah; according to others, Boujayah. It was a Roman colony, after having previously been the eastern frontier fortress of Bocchus and of Juba. On the new arrangement of the provinces, it became the westernmost city on the coast of Sitifensis. Its harbor was a spacious one. 3. Icosium, to the west, on the coast, a Roman colony, and presented by Vespasian with the Jus Latinum. The ruins are now called Shershell. 4. Julia Cæsarea, to the west, a Roman colony. It was originally an unimportant Phoenician settlement, named Iol; at a later period the residence of Bocchus, and afterward of Juba II., who called it Cæsarea in honor of Augustus. It became a Roman colony under Claudius, and the capital of the province. Mannert, Shaw, and others make its ruins those at Shershell; they are to be sought, however, near the modern Tenez. 5. Siga, to the southwest, on the coast, and near the confines of Tingitana. It was situate on a river of the same name, in a spacious bay, which formed its harbor, and was for some time the royal residence of Syphax, king of the Massæsylii, before he took up his abode at Cirta. In the interior we may mention Sitifi, southwest of Cirta, an important city, enlarged by the Romans, and made a colony, and the capital of Mauretania Sitifensis, as already remarked. It is now Setif.

2. NUMIDIA.

Numidia was originally bounded on the east by the dominions of Carthage, on the west by the River Molocath or Mu-

lucha, separating it from Mauritania, on the south by Gætulia, and on the north by the Mediterranean. When, however, the new arrangement of Mauritania took place, and the Roman province of Numidia was formed, this last, being of much smaller extent than the original kingdom, reached from the River Tusca, now the Zain, on the east, to the Ampsagas, now the Wadi-al-Kebir, on the west. The kingdom of Numidia, therefore, answered to the modern Algiers; but the Roman province of Numidia merely to the eastern part of Algiers.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, &c.

I. The Numidians were originally a nomadic people, their country abounding in good pastures, and hence they were called by the Greeks Nomades ($No\mu a\delta \epsilon_S$), and their land Nomadia ($No\mu a\delta \epsilon_A$), whence by a slight change came the Latin forms Numida and Numidia. This name of Nomades seems to have been originally applied not merely to the inhabitants of the country to which the appellation of Numidia was afterward restricted, but to all the nomade tribes of northern Africa. When, however, the Greek and Roman writers speak of the Numidians, the term is usually limited to the two great tribes of the Massasylii and Massylii, the former of whom extended along the northern part of Africa, from the Molocath on the west to the Ampsagas on the east, and the latter from the Ampsagas to the territories of Carthage.

II. When the Romans first became acquainted with the Numidians, which was during the course of the second Punic war, Syphax was king of the Massæsylii, and Gala king of the Massylii. Gala had a son named Masinissa, who possessed extraordinary powers both of mind and body. He was brought up at Carthage, and, in the contest with the Romans in Spain, served with great credit against them, but having been subsequently wronged by the Carthaginians, and deprived by them of his dominions, he joined himself to Scipio on the arrival of the latter in Africa, and proved of essential service to the Romans. At the conclusion of the second Punic war, therefore, he obtained as a recompense all the dominions of Syphax, in which his own hereditary ones were included, together with a considerable part of the Carthaginian territory. Masinissa laid the foundation of a great and powerful state in Numidia. He introduced the arts of agriculture and civilized life, amassed considerable wealth, and supported a well-appointed army. He died at the age of ninety, B.C. 149.

III. Masinissa was succeeded by Micipsa, his eldest son, who lived to B.C. 118, and bequeathed his kingdom to his two sons Adherbal and Hiempsal, and his nephew Jugurtha. Jugurtha, however, not content with a divided sovereignty, murdered Hiempsal, and compelled Adherbal to flee to Rome, where he appealed to the senate against the usurpation of his cousin. A war on the part of the Romans against Jugurtha finally ensued, which terminated, after various success, in the capture and death of that prince, B.C. 106. After the death of Jugurtha the kingdom of Numidia appears to have been given to Hiempsal II., who was succeeded, about B.C. 50, by his son Juba I., who took an active part in the civil wars against Cæsar. On the death of Juba I., B.C. 46, Numidia was reduced to the form of a Roman province by Cæsar, who intrusted the government of it to the historian Sallust.

PLACES IN NUMIDIA.

1. Thabraca or Tabraca, at the mouth of the River Tusca, and the frontier town on the side of Zeugitana. According to Ptolemy, it was a Roman colony, and here the tyrant Gildo put an end to his life in A.D. 398. In the vicinity were forests thickly inhabited by apes, a circumstance to which Juvenal alludes. The ancient name may still be traced in that of the island of Tabarkah, at the mouth of the river. 2. Hippo Regius, to the west, near the mouth of the Ubus, now the Zenati. It was founded by the Phænicians, and became subsequently a Roman colony, and a place of great importance. It was destroyed by the Vandals in A.D. 430. Hippo is well known as the see of St. Augustine. It was called Hippo Regius to distinguish it from Hippo Zarytus, in Africa Propria, and from its being a favorite place of residence with the Numidian kings. The ruins of Hippo are near the modern Bona. 3. Rusicada, to the west, on the Sinus Olcachites, or Gulf of Stora, and regarded as the port of Cirta. 4. Cullu, to the northwest, famed for its purple dye, and therefore, probably, of Phænician origin. The ruins are at a place called Collo. 5. Vacca or Vaga, a large and important place, south of Tabraca, and described by Sallust as the chief commercial town in Numidia. It was destroyed by Metellus in the Jugurthine war, but afterward rebuilt and inhabited by Romans. Justinian fortified the place, and called it Theodorias, in honor of his wife. It coincides, probably, with the modern Beja or Bedsja. 6. Sicca Veneria, to the south, on the Bagradas. It was of Phænician origin, and the appellation Veneria had reference to its containing a temple of Venus, who was worshipped here with Phænician rites. Its site corresponds with the modern Keff. 7. Cirta, the chief town in Numidia toward the western frontier, situate on a high rocky peninsula, about forty-eight miles from the sea, and on a branch of the Ampsagas, now called the Rummel. It was a strong place, and the royal residence, having been occupied in succession by Syphax, Masinissa, and the other rulers of the land. Julius Cæsar subsequently bestowed it on Sittius, a partisan of his, and, a Roman colony being established here, the city now received the appellation of Colonia Julia, or Sittianorum Colonia. At a later day, in the time of the Emperor Constantine, having suffered much on account of its fidelity to that prince, it was repaired and embellished by him, and changed its name, in consequence, to Constantina, which it retains to the present day. 8. Zama, situate, according to the best opinion, to the southeast of Sitifi, and answering to the modern Zainah. Some, less correctly, seek to identify it with the modern Zoharin. Near Zama was fought the memorable battle between Scipio and Hannibal, which put an end to the second Punic war. Zama was a strongly fortified place, and was occasionally the residence of the monarchs of Numidia; hence it was also called Zama Regia. 9. Tagaste, southwest of Vacca, and the birth-place of St. Augustine.

3. AFRICA PROPRIA.

I. By Africa Propria, called also Africa Vetus, is here meant the immediate and earlier territory of Carthage, before that state had wrested the Regio Syrtica from Cyrene. It extended from the River Tusca on the west, to the Palus Tritonis and the Syrtis Minor on the south and southeast, and corresponded, therefore, to the modern Tunis. On the other

hand, the Roman Province of Africa extended from the River Ampsagas on the west, to the Aræ Philænorum, or "Altars of the Philæni," on the east, and embraced, therefore, not only Africa Propria, but also Numidia and the Regio Syrtica.

II. Africa Propria was divided into two districts, namely, Byzacium and Zeugitana, the former in the south, the latter in the north. The whole country was a fertile one, but Byzacium remarkably so, and of Byzacium itself the most productive part was a region called Emp"oriae, forming its southernmost portion, and lying around the Palus Tritonis and Syrtis Minor. This last-mentioned region of Emporiae was peculiarly regarded as the granary of Carthage, and is often mentioned as a separate district by the ancient writers. It appears to have derived its name from the numerous trading places (im pope ia) contained in it, and which were probably the stapletowns for the trade with the interior of Africa. Byzacium is said to have been so called from the Byzantes, a numerous tribe of Libyans who dwelt in it.

III. The Carthaginian dominions reached on the south as far as the land was fertile, that is, to the *Palus Tritonis*, beyond which the agricultural tribes ceased and the nomade races began. The interior of the country was every where filled with Carthaginian colonies, which, intermingling with the native tribes, gave rise to a mixed but civilized race called *Libyphanices*.

PLACES IN BYZACIUM.

1. Byzacia or Byzacina, the capital of the district, on the Syrtis Minor, and the same, probably, with the city named Mamma, which is mentioned by Procopius. It appears to correspond to the modern Beghui. The Palus Tritonis lay to the southwest of this place. It is now called Shibkah-el-Lowdiah. In the time of Scylax this lake communicated with the Syrtis Minor by a small entrance called the River Triton. In its immediate vicinity was a smaller lake named Libya Palus. The appellation Tritonia, given in mythology to Minerva, is erroneously connected by some with the name of the Palus Tritonis. 2. Capsa, to the north, and inland, situate in a fruitful region, but surrounded by deserts. It was a strong place, and was said to have been founded by the Libyan Hercules. Jugurtha kept his treasures here. It is now Cafsa. 3. Thena, on the coast, to the northeast, with the island of Cercina, now Chercara, lying opposite. It subsequently became a Roman colony, with the name of Ælia Augusta Mercurialis. It is now Taineh. 4. Acholla, to the northeast, on the coast, and near the modern Elalia. 5. Thapsus, to the north, on a promontory, and near a salt lake. It was a strong place, and became known from Cæsar's victory here over Scipio and Juba. The ruins are at Demass. 6. Turris Hannibalis, close by, the spot whence Hannibal set sail when fleeing from Africa. 7. Leptis Parva or Minor, on the coast, to the northwest, a Phænician settlement, and now Lemta. It was called Parva for distinction' sake from Leptis Magna in the Regio Syrtica. 8. Hadrumētum or Adrumētum, on the coast, to the northwest, a Phænician settlement, and a flourishing commercial city. It was made a Roman colony under Trajan. Its walls were subsequently demolished by the Vandals, but rebuilt by Justinian, who gave the city the name of Justiniana. At a still later day it took the name of Heraclea, from the Emperor Heraclius, and is, therefore, probably now represented by the modern Hercla, and not, as some suppose, by Hamamet, which lies more to the north. 9. Sufetula, in the interior, to the northeast of Capsa, a place of considerable importance, and the central point of all the trading routes running into the more inland parts, now Sfaitla.

PLACES IN ZEUGITANA.

1. Neapolis, on the coast, to the north of Hadrumetum, and an old Phænician settlement. It became subsequently a Roman colony. The modern Nabal represents only a small portion of the ancient city, the greater part having been swallowed up by the sea. The bay in front was called Sinus Neapolitanus, now the Gulf of Hamamet. 2. Aspis, or, in the Latin translation of the name, Clypea, to the north, just below the Promontory of Hermaum, a strong place, with a small harbor, now Clybea. 3. Hippo Zarytus, more correctly written so than in the Greek form Hippo Diarrhytus (Διάβρυτος), which seems to be merely an imitative translation of the native name. It was situate on the northern coast, toward the west, called Zarytus on account, it is said, of the frequent inundations to which it was exposed. It must not be confounded with Hippo Regius in Numidia. It is now Benizert or Bizerta. 4. Utica, to the east of Hippo, and west of the mouth of the Bagradas. It was the earliest, or one of the earliest colonies planted by Tyre on the African coast, and, according to some authorities, was more ancient than Carthage. It was for a long period an ally rather of this latter city than really subject to it. In the third Punic war, however, it sided with the Romans, and after the issue of that conflict received from the latter as a recompense a large portion of the immediate territory of Carthage. Utica was subsequently the chief place of arms, and the last refuge of the republican party in the war with Cæsar, and here the younger Cato put an end to his existence. It was, next to Carthage, the most important city in Africa, and, after the fall of that city, held the first rank. The ruins at Bu-Shatter are very probably those of Utica. 5. Castra Cornelia, a short distance to the east of Utica, and the spot where the elder Scipio landed in the second Punic war, and pitched his first camp, whence the name of the place. According to Mannert, it was at the present Porto Farina. 6. Tunes, to the south, and, according to Polybius, only one hundred and twenty stadia from Carthage. It first rose into notice on the fall of the latter city, and answers to the modern Tunis.

7. Carthāgo, a celebrated commercial city, situate on the northern coast, upon a peninsula, in the recess of a spacious bay, formed by the Hermaum Promontorium, or Cape Bon, on the east, and the Apollinis Promontorium, or Cape Zebib, on the west. Between it and Utica flowed the River Megerdas, now the Medsjerda. Carthage was founded by a colony from Tyre, but the true date of its origin is uncertain. There would seem to have been, in fact, two successive Phænician settlements on the spot, an earlier one, preceding, according to tradition, the siege of Troy, and a later one, headed by Elissa or Dido. These later colonists are said to have purchased or agreed to pay rent for a piece of ground

on which to build a town, and to have called this town Betzura or Bosra, "the castle," a name which the Greeks subsequently altered into Byrsa, and invented in connection with it the well-known fable of the hide. As the town increased, the inhabitants excavated a port, which was called Cothon, and eventually a great maritime and commercial emporium arose. The Phænician name of this city was Karth-hadtha, "the New City," in contradistinction to the old or parent city of Tyre, and out of this name the Greeks formed their Καρχηδών, and the Romans Carthago. Carthage carried on a most extensive commerce both by land and sea. Her inland traffic reached, by means of caravans, into probably the very centre of Africa. Her settlements were spread along the whole northern coast; while her foreign commerce reached not only over the entire Mediterranean, but even into the Atlantic. Among her foreign possessions may be mentioned Sardinia, Corsica, a portion of Sicily, the Baleares, and a large part of Spain. The government of Carthage was municipal; and the city ruled over all the rest of the country. The constitution was a mixed aristocracy. The chief authority was vested in the senate, which appears to have been a numerous body, composed of the principal citizens. It was not an exclusive aristocracy, nor essentially hereditary, but was recruited out of the class of the more wealthy citizens, or those who had rendered great service to the state. The senators appear to have been elected for life. The senate contained within itself a select body, or council of state, which the Greek writers call Gerusia, and which consisted of one hundred members. Two suffetes, probably shophetim or judges, like those of the Hebrews, and whom the Greek and Roman writers call kings, appear to have been at the head of the executive; they presided in the senate, and laid before that assembly their reports on public affairs. The Carthaginians employed chiefly mercenary soldiers, though always commanded by Carthaginian officers. This formed one of the main evils of their system, as they could never rely fully on the attachment of these troops. Carthage was the great rival of Rome, and the collisions between these two great powers are known in history by the name of the Punic Wars. The first Punic war lasted twenty-three years, and was brought to a close by the naval battle fought off the Ægātes Insula, to the west of Sicily. By this war Carthage lost Sicily and the Lipari islands. The second Punic war began B.C. 218, and was ended by the battle of Zama and the defeat of Hannibal, in B.C. 201. During sixteen years of this period Hannibal maintained the war in Italy. The third Punic war lasted only three years, and ended with the destruction of Carthage by the younger Scipio Africanus. About thirty years after this the Gracchi attempted to establish a colony on the ruins of Carthage, but the settlement made little progress until Julius Cæsar, and Augustus after him, sent colonies to build a new city, which was called Colonia Carthago. It stood on the southeast part of the peninsula, and occupied only a small part of the ancient site. Subsequently, however, it rose to considerable splendor, and became the first city of Roman Africa. In Christian history it is known for its councils, and for the spiritual labors of St. Augustine. In A.D. 439 it was taken by the Vandals; in 533 it was retaken by Belisarius. In A.D. 698 it was destroyed by the Saracens. The ruins seen at the present day belong to Roman Carthage. There are no remains of the Tyrian city, except the large cisterns, and perhaps the ruins of the great aqueduct. The alluvia of the Bagradas, and the sands raised up by the northwest winds which prevail on this coast, have produced great changes, and the shape of the peninsula of Carthage in particular is completely altered.

4. REGIO SYRTICA.

I. The Regio Syrtica was the tract of country lying along the coast between the Syrtis Minor and the Syrtis Major, and extending from the River Triton on the west, to the Aræ Philænorum and Cyrenaïca on the east. At a subsequent period, probably about the third century of our era, it took the name of Regio Tripolitana or Tripolis, from its three cities of Leptis Magna, Œa, and Sabrata; and it now answers to the district of Tripoli.

II. This tract of country is described by the ancients as sandy, and but little cultivated; at the present day, however, the coast lands, except at the bottom of the Syrtis Major, where the desert and sea are conterminous, are extremely fertile. The Syrtic region originally belonged to Cyrenaïca, but fell subsequently into the hands of the Carthaginfans, through the stratagem of the Philani, whose patriotism was commemorated by the altars erected over their graves. It afterward formed part of the Roman province of Africa.

THE SYRTES.

I. Syrtes (at $\Sigma \acute{v} \rho \tau \epsilon \iota \epsilon$) was the name given by the Greeks and Romans to the two gulfs on the northern coast of Africa, one of which they called Syrtis Major ($\mathring{\eta} \mu \epsilon \gamma \acute{a} \lambda \eta \Sigma \acute{v} \rho \tau \iota \epsilon$), or the Greater Syrtis, and the other Syrtis Minor ($\mathring{\eta} \mu \iota \kappa \rho \grave{a} \Sigma \acute{v} \rho \tau \iota \epsilon$), or the Lesser Syrtis. Both Syrtes were the terror of the ancient mariners. The name is said by some to be derived from the Greek verb $\sigma \acute{v} \rho \omega$, "to drag," in allusion to the agitation of the sand by the force of the tides. Another derivation, however, is from the term sert, which still exists in Arabic as the name for a desert tract or region; for the term Syrtis does not appear to have been confined to the gulfs themselves, but to have been extended also to the desert country adjacent, which is still at the present day called Sert.

II. The Syrtis Major is now called the Gulf of Sidra, and lay between the Boreum Promontorium, now Cape Tejuni, on the east, and the Cephalæ Promontorium, now Cape Mesurata, on the west, the distance between which is two hundred and thirty geographical miles. The Sahara, or Great Desert, here comes down almost to the sea, leaving here and there only a narrow strip of land inhabitable. The gulf is very shallow and full of quicksands, and the coast is covered by a chain of little islands. On this dangerous shore it was difficult to prevent ships from being driven by the north winds, to which the gulf is completely exposed, while the effect of such winds on the water made the soundings very uncertain.

III. The Syrtis Minor is now called the Gulf of Khabs or Cabes, and lay to the west of the former, between the island Meninx, now Jerbah, on the south, and the Brachodes Promontorium, or Cape Capoudiah, on the north. Its width, reckoned from the island of Meninx to that of Cercina, was sixty geographical miles. This gulf is said by Scylax to have been even more dangerous than the Greater Syrtis. Its dangers arise, however, not so much from quicksands as

from the variations and uncertainty of the tides on a flat shelvy coast. These variations are occasioned by the east winds to which it lies open.

TRIBES IN THE REGIO SYRTICA.

THE Tribes of the Regio Syrtica were, 1. The Lotophagi, or "lotus-eaters," around the Syrtis Minor, and extending also some distance along the coast to the southeast. They received their name from their employing the fruit of the lotus as their chief article of food. The lotus here meant is supposed to have been a species of ziziphus, or jujube, growing very abundantly in this quarter even at the present day, and described by travellers as a prickly, branching shrub, with fruit of the size of a wild plum, and of a sweetish taste and saffron color. According to Homer, the fruit of the lotus was so delicious that whoever ate of it lost all desire of returning to their native country. Ulysses was fabled to have visited the land of the Lotophagi in the course of his wanderings. 2. The Gindanes, to the west of the former. 3. Various tribes mentioned by Ptolemy, but of whom nothing is known, such as the Nigitimi, Samamycii, Damensii, Nygbeni, &c. 4. The Psylli, toward the frontiers of Cyrenaica. They were said to be very expert in taming serpents, and also in curing their bite by sucking out the venom from the wound. Some ancient geographers assign them to Cyrenaica. They were almost entirely destroyed by the Nasamones.

PLACES IN THE REGIO SYRTICA.

THE most important places were the three cities already mentioned, and which gave to this region subsequently the name of Tripolis, or Regio Tripolitana; namely, 1. Leptis Magna, on the east, to the west of the mouth of the River Cinyps, and founded by a colony of Sidonian fugitives. The country around was very fertile, and, though the city had no harbor, it was nevertheless enriched by inland traffic, more particularly under the Romans, who established a colony here. It was the birth-place of the Emperor Septimius Severus, who greatly favored the place, so that, as late as the fourth century of our era, it was a strong and populous city. The ruins are now to be seen at Lebida, which occupies a part of its site. The River Cinyps (Κίννψ) or Cinyphus (Κίννφος) is the only stream of any consequence in this tract of country, and rose in what was called the "Hill of the Graces" (Χαρίτων λόφος), about two hundred stadia from the coast. The modern name of this river is Wady Quaham. 2. Ea, called by Pliny Civitas Œensis, and by Ptolemy 'Eaa, on the coast, to the northwest, and with a good harbor. It first grew up under the Roman sway, and is said to have been founded by a mixed colony of natives and Sicilians. It became at a later day a Roman colony, with the name of Ælia Augusta Felix. The ruins lie four geographical miles to the east of the modern city of Tripoli. 3. Sabrata, not far to the west, originally a Phænician settlement, and subsequently a Roman colony. It was the native city of Flavia Domitilla, wife of Vespasian, and mother of Titus and Domitian. Mannert makes it the same with the Phænician Abrotonum, but Pliny distinguishes between the two places. The site of Sabrata is now called Sabart, or Tripoli Vecchio. To these three places we may add, 4. Tacape, on the Syrtis Minor, and a little below the mouth of the River Triton. In its vicinity were warm baths, called Aqua Tacapitana. Tacape is now Gabes. 5. Meninx, the chief town in the island Meninx, in the Syrtis Minor. This island was likewise called Lotophagitis Insula. It contained another town named Gerra, the native place of the Emperors Vibius Gallus and Volusianus. From it comes the modern name Girba given to the island.

5. CYRENAÏCA.

I. Cyrenaïca was bounded on the west by the Regio Tripolitana, on the east by Marmarica, on the north by the Mediterranean, and on the south by the African desert. It derived its name from its capital city Cyrēnē. At a subsequent period, about the time of the Egyptian Ptolemies, it took also the appellation of Pentapolis, from its five principal cities. It corresponds in a great measure to the modern Barca.

II. Cyrenaïca was regarded by the Greeks as a kind of terrestrial paradise. It was extremely well watered, and the inhabitants, according to Herodotus, employed eight months in collecting the productions of the land; the maritime places first yielded their fruits, then the second region, which they called the hills, and, lastly, the highest parts inland. One of the chief natural productions was an herb called *silphium*, to the resinous juice of which great virtues were ascribed, and which therefore formed a valuable article of trade. A representation of the *silphium* always appears upon the coins of Cyrene.

INHABITANTS AND HISTORY.

I. The inhabitants in the interior were Libyan nomades, those on the coast were Greek colonists. About B.C. 631, a colony of Greeks, in obedience to the suggestion of the Delphic oracle, and under the guidance of a leader named Battus, migrated from the island of Thera, a Lacedæmonian settlement, and established themselves on this part of the African coast, where they founded the city of Cyrenc. The constitution of the colony was at first monarchical. Under Battus II. the settlement was greatly increased by the arrival of new Greek colonists. Under Battus III. the regal power was much curtailed by Demonax of Mantinea, who introduced several laws to that effect.

II. About B.C. 450 the government appears to have changed to a republic. After the time of Alexander the country became subject to Ptolemy the First of Egypt, and continued under the dominion of his successors until the death of Ptolemy Physcon, who left it by will as an independent kingdom to his natural son Ptolemy Apion. This monarch, at his death in B.C. 96, bequeathed his kingdom by will to the Roman people. The senate, however, refused to accept the legacy, and declared the cities of Cyrenaïca free. They were not reduced to the condition of a province till near thirty years afterward.

PLACES IN CYRENAÏCA.

1. Apollonia, on the coast, and at first merely the harbor of Cyrene, which lay inland; afterward, however, a large and independent city. In the Middle Ages it took the name of Sozusa (Σώζουσα), and the site is now called Marza Susa. 2. Ptolemais, on the coast, to the southwest, and at first merely the harbor of Barce, which lay one hundred stadia inland; afterward, however, it was enlarged by the Ptolemies, called Ptolemais, having been previously known, ac-

cording to Pliny, by the same name (Barce) as the city whose harbor it then was, and became a very flourishing place, while Barce itself declined. At a subsequent period we find Ptolemais suffering greatly from a scarcity of water, in consequence of which many of its inhabitants left it, and although the Emperor Justinian tried every expedient to remedy this evil by means of aqueducts, the city gradually fell to ruins. The remains are called at the present day Tolometa. 3. Taucheira or Teucheira, on the coast, a short distance to the southwest. The goddess Cybele was worshipped here with peculiar honors. Under the Ptolemies the name of the place was changed to Arsinoë. It became at a later period a Roman colony. Its remains are now called Tochira or Teukira. 4. Berenice, on the coast, to the southwest. Its earlier name was Hesperis or Hesperides, changed to Berenice in honor of the queen of Ptolemy Euergetes. It is now Benagaye or Benegasi. Berenice was the westernmost city of the Pentapolis, and not far from the mouth of the River Lathon. Some of the ancient writers placed the far-famed gardens of the Hesperides near Berenice. In the neighborhood of Benagaye, at the present day, are some curious chasms or pits sunk in the rock, sixty or seventy feet below the plain, with excellent soil at the bottom, covered with trees and rich vegetation, and which seem to answer to the description given by Scylax of those celebrated gardens.

5. Cyrēnē, the capital of the Pentapolis, and from which it derived its name of Cyrenaïca. It was founded in B.C. 631 by a colony from the island of Thera, led by Battus, as we have already remarked. The colony first settled in an island named Platea, where they remained two years; after this they removed to Aziris, where they remained six years, and at length settled in the place which they called Cyrene, a term said to be derived from a fountain named Cure, flowing near. This city soon became, from its advantageous situation for commerce, a rich and powerful one, and, next to Carthage, the most important place in northern Africa. In the time of Aristotle its government was republican. It subsequently fell, as already stated, under the power of the Ptolemies, and was finally bequeathed by Apion, together with the rest of the Pentapolis, to the Romans. The country around Cyrene must have been in ancient times a complete garden, and is still remarkable for its beauty. Cyrene was the native place of many distinguished persons, among whom may be here mentioned Aristippus, the founder of the Cyrenaic sect, Carneades, the head of the New Academy, the poet Callimachus, and the geographer Eratosthenes. This city, after suffering much from the oppression of its Byzantine governors, was destroyed in the fourth century by an irruption of some barbarous tribe from the interior of Libya. The ruins are now called Grenneh or Curin. 6. Barce, to the southwest of Cyrene, and lying inland from Ptolemaïs. It was originally the capital of a Libyan tribe named Barcai, but received in B.C. 560 a large accession of Greek settlers from Cyrene, of which city it soon became thereupon a powerful and bitter rival. This state of feud lasted for some time, until Cyrene called in to her aid the Persian satrap of Ægypt, when Barce was overcome, and a large number of her Grecian inhabitants were sent away captive into Upper Asia, to the court of Darius Hystaspis, who assigned them lands in Bactria. A much more severe blow was struck, however, at a later day, when the Ptolemies enlarged the port of Barce, and made it a separate city under the name of Ptolemaïs. The rapid increase of this latter place soon caused Barce to decline. It did not, however, become wholly deserted, and the Arabs subsequently gave its name to the whole country of Cyrenaïca; but at last the town sank into total oblivion, and even its site can not now be ascertained, though probability is in favor of the modern Merdsjeh.

6. MARMARICA.

I. Marmarica lay between Cyrenaica on the west and Egypt on the east, while to the south it extended a considerable distance, so as to include the Oasis of Ammon; and it corresponds, therefore, to what is now the easternmost part of Barca, and the northwesternmost portion of Egypt.

II. Prior, however, to the Roman dominion, and under the sway of the Ptolemies, *Marmarica* extended merely, on the cast, as far as the *Catabathmus Magnus*, a long valley or descent running inland from the coast, and now the vale of *Akabah el-Soloum*; and hence the ancient geographers, up to that time regarding Ægypt as a part of *Asia*, and extending its limits as far as the *Catabathmus Magnus* on the west, made this last the boundary between *Africa* and *Asia*.

III. Under the Romans, however, a new arrangement was made, Marmarica being extended on the east as far as the Sinus Plinthinētes, or Arabs' Gulf, and the whole country being divided into two parts, namely, Marmarica Proper, reaching from Cyrenaïca to the Catabathmus Magnus, and the Nome of Libya ($\Lambda\iota 6\acute{\nu}\eta\varsigma$ Nó $\mu o\varsigma$), extending from the Catabathmus to the Sinus Plinthinētes, and which the Ptolemies had made a part of Ægypt. It is in this enlarged sense that we are now to consider Marmarica.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, TRIBES, &c.

I. Marmarica was for the most part a sandy waste, containing no rivers and but few cities. It had also but few mountains, the principal of which were, 1. Mons Aspis, along the coast of the Libyan Nome. 2. Mons Aspihus, further to the west. 3. Mons Ogdamus, to the southeast of the range of Aspis. 4. Montes Anagombri, to the west of the Oasis of Ammon. 5. Montes Bascici, to the northwest. The Catabathmus Magnus, already mentioned, was formed by a continuation of these latter mountains. The epithet Magnus was given to the valley in question, in contradistinction to the Catabathmus Parvus, near the confines of Ægypt.

II. Marmarica, with the exception of the coast, was roamed over by various nomadic tribes, the most powerful of whom were the *Marmarida*, from whom the country derived its name. The *Adyrmachida*, in the Libyan Nome, are said in some respects to have resembled the Ægyptians. The *Nasamōnes*, who, in carlier geography, are assigned to *Cyrenaica*, are placed by Ptolemy in *Marmarica*, having been driven into this country by the Roman arms.

PLACES IN MARMARICA.

1. Taposīris or Taphosīris, near the Egyptian frontier, on the coast, and celebrated as the burial-place of Osiris, whence its Greek name. The ruins are

now called Abusir, and lie near what is termed the Arab's Tower, probably an ancient Pharos. This place must not be confounded with Taposiris Parva, which lay much nearer to Alexandrea. 2. Antiphra, some distance inland, noted for its wretched wine. The Libyan wine in general was very poor, and drunk only by the lowest classes in Alexandrea. 3. Paratonium, on the coast, to the west, a strongly fortified city, and prior to Roman times the frontier town of Ægypt in this quarter. It was repaired and strengthened by Justinian. The modern name of the site is Al-Baretoun. 4. Apis, about one hundred stadia to the west of Parætonium, and celebrated as one of the places where the deity Apis was particularly worshipped. Scylax makes this, and not Parætonium, the western limit of Ægypt, 5. Catabathmus, a castle and harbor in the vicinity of, and taking its name from the Catabathmus Parvus. 6. Menelai Portus, to the west, deriving its name, according to the legend, from Menelaus, who landed here in the course of his wanderings. Here also Agesilaus, the celebrated Spartan commander, ended his existence. It is now, probably, the harbor of Toubrouk. 7. Chersonesus Magna, a city with a good harbor, on a promontory of the same name, near the confines of Cyrenaïca. It is now, perhaps, Rasatin.

The only remarkable spot in the interior of Marmarica is the Oasis of Ammon. which we will now proceed briefly to describe, merely premising that by some of the ancient geographers it is assigned, not to Marmarica, but to Libya Interior.

AMMONIUM OR OASIS OF AMMON.

I. By the term Ammonium ($\tau \delta$ 'Aµµώνιον) the Greeks and Romans meant what is now called the Oăsis of Siwah, a fertile spot in the Great Desert of Sahara, about fifteen geographical miles in length and twelve in breadth. It lies about one hundred and sixty English miles from the sea-coast. The ancient name was derived from the celebrated temple and oracle of Jupiter Ammon that were here, and which appear to have been of very early origin. The origin of the Ammonian people inhabiting this Oasis, and who would seem to have been quite numerous, is a matter of uncertainty. The ancients make them to have been a mixed colony of Ægyptians and Æthiopians, and the traditions represent a close connection as existing between this spot and Ægypt.

II. The god called by the Greeks Jupiter Ammon was worshipped here under a *Krioprosopic* form, that is, his statue was represented with a ram's head, a manifest Ægyptian type; although this does not appear to have been his carliest form. The oracle connected with the sanctuary was a very famous one, and is well known to have been consulted by Alexander the Great in relation to his divine origin. The temple of Ammon, like that of Delphi, was celebrated for its treasures, and these, in the time of the Persian invasion of Egypt, excited so far the cupidity of Cambyses as to induce him to send a large body of forces across the desert to seize upon the place. They all, however, perished in the desert, either from want of water, or from having been misled purposely by their guides.

III. Here also was the famous Fons Solis, or "Fountain of the Sun," which, according to Herodotus, was tepid at dawn, cool as the day advanced, very cool at noon, diminishing in coolness as the day declined, warm at sunset, and boiling hot at midnight. It would seem from the accounts of modern travellers, and especially of St. John, the latest of them, that it is a hot spring, and probably very hot at night, and comparatively cool in the daytime. The traveller last men tioned, who has recently given a very interesting account of the remains and

antiquities at Ammonium, describes the present inhabitants as a mixed race of Berbers and negroes, extremely bigoted, and, consequently, very inhospitable. His visit was paid in 1847.

IV. The true character of the African Oases has been greatly misunderstood. They are not, as the common account makes them, fertile spots "in the midst of a sandy plain," but depressions in the lofty table-land of Africa, where, in the absence of the superincumbent limestone strata, the water has the power of rising to the surface. In other words, the Oases are valleys sunk in the elevated plain that forms the desert; and when you descend to one of them, you find the level space or plain of the Oasis similar to a portion of the valley of Ægypt, surrounded by steep hills of limestone at some distance from the cultivated land.

7. ÆGYPTUS.

1. NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. Egypt is called in Hebrew Mitsraim; in Arabic, Mesr. The Copts, or descendants of the ancient Egyptians, term it Chami or Chemi, "the dark land," in allusion to its dark, rich soil. The appellation by which this country is known to Europeans comes from the Greek ($\Lambda i \gamma \nu \pi \tau \sigma \varsigma$, Egyptus), and appears to contain a root resembling the word Copt, so that Egypt may perhaps mean "the land of the Copts" (from ala for $\gamma a i a$, and $\kappa i \pi \tau - \sigma \varsigma$). The ancient Egyptian name is said to have resembled the modern Coptic one.

II. Ægypt was bounded on the south by Æthiopia, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by Arabia Petræa and Palæstina, and on the west by the Libyan Desert. The extent along the Mediterranean coast was computed from Rhinocorura, now El-Arish, on the east, to the Sinus Plinthinetes, now Arabs' Gulf, on the west, in which latter direction the city of Parætŏnium, subsequently assigned to Marmarica, was commonly regarded as the frontier station.

III. Before the limits of Asia and Africa were correctly established, some of the early geographers made Ægypt a part of Asia, while others regarded the Nile as the dividing limit, and assigned the portion of Ægypt lying east of that river to Asia, and the remainder to Africa.

2. Divisions.

I. In the time of the Pharaohs, Ægypt was divided into the Thebais, Middle, and Lower Ægypt. The Thebais extended from the confines of Æthiopia as far as the city of Abydos, to the north, and contained ten districts, jurisdictions, or, as the Greeks called them, nomes $(v \acute{\nu} \mu \iota \iota)$. The Coptic word is Pthosch. To these succeeded the sixteen nomes of Middle Ægypt, reaching to Cercasorum,

where the Nile began to branch off, and form the Delta. Then came the ten nomes of Lower Ægypt, or the Delta, extending to the sea. The whole number of nomes, then, at this period, was thirty-six, corresponding to the number of halls in the Labyrinth.

II. Under the dynasty of the Ptolemies the number of nomes became enlarged partly by reason of the new and improved state of things in that quarter of Ægypt where Alexandrea was situated, partly by the addition of the Greater or Lesser Oasis to Ægypt, and partly, also, by the alterations which an active commerce had produced along the borders of the Sinus Arabicus. A change also took place about this same period in the three main divisions of the country. Lower Ægypt now no longer confined itself to the limits of the Delta, but had its extent enlarged by the addition of some of the neighboring nomes. In like manner, Upper Ægypt, or the Thebaïs, received a portion of what had formerly been included within the limits of Middle Ægypt, so that eventually but seven nomes remained to this last-mentioned section of the country, which therefore received the name of Heptanömis.

III. The number of nomes became still farther increased, at a subsequent period, by various subdivisions of the older ones. At a still later period we hear little more of the nomes. A new division of the country took place under the Eastern Empire. An imperial prefect exercised sway not only over Ægypt, but also over Libya as far as Cyrene, while a Comes Militaris had charge of the forces. From this time, the whole of Middle Ægypt, previously named Heptanomis, bore the name of Arcadia, in honor of Arcadius, eldest son of Theodosius. A new province had also arisen, a considerable time before this, called Augustamnica, from its lying chiefly along the Nile. It comprised the eastern half of the Delta, together with a portion of Arabia, as far as the Arabian Gulf, and also the cities on the Mediterranean as far as the frontiers of Syria. Its capital was Pelusium. Other changes took place about the time of Justinian, in the sixth century, in connection with the position of the various archbishopries and bishopries, which it is unnecessary here to enumerate.

3. Soil, CLIMATE, &c.

I. The valley of the Nile is inclosed by the Libyan and Arabian mountain chains, both of which are pierced with a number of valleys, crossing them obliquely, and leading on the one side to the Arabian Gulf, and on the other to the Greater and Lesser Oasis of the Libyan Desert. The western chain forms a monotonous barren dam, by which the valley of the Nile is protected from the sand-waves of the Libyan Desert; the eastern, which fills the whole country as far as the Arabian Gulf, has in Upper Ægypt three distinct formations, namely, in the south, rose-colored granite, the material of which the obelisks, entire temples, and colossal statues were formed; in the centre, sandstone of various colors, gradually merging in the limestone formation of the mountains in the north, the material of the pyramids.

II. Of this region, the only fertile portion is the valley which is inclosed between these chains, and watered by the Nile. This valley becomes wider as it approaches the north, and with the *Delta*, excepting the sandy and marshy ground on the coast, forms a tract of rich alluvial soil, which is manured every year by the overflowings of the Nile. Ancient Ægypt depends, in fact, entirely on the Nile, not merely for its fertility, but its very existence, since rain never falls in this country except in the Delta, and even here chiefly in places near the sea. To its singularly constituted atmosphere, however, and to the regular

inundations of the Nile, Ægypt owes the advantage of containing within its limits almost all the cultivated vegetables of the Old World. Even in the days of Abraham and Joseph, this country was a place of refuge for the neighboring nations in seasons of scarcity, and at a later period it became the granary of Rome and Constantinople. Its most celebrated vegetable production, however, was the papyrus, out of which paper was made, and which still grows here.

III. The average breadth of the valley of the Nile between Cairo and Edfou is only about seven miles, and that of the cultivated land, whose limits depend on the inundation, scarcely exceeds five and a half, being in the widest part ten and three quarters, and in the narrowest two miles, including the river. The extent of the Delta may be estimated at one thousand nine hundred and seventy-six square miles. That the irrigated part of the valley was formerly much less extensive than it is at present, at least wherever the plain stretches to any distance east and west, or to the right and left of the river, is evident from the fact of the alluvial deposit constantly encroaching in a horizontal direction upon the gradual slope of the desert. The plain of Thebes, in the time of Amenouf III., or about 1430 B.C., was not more than two thirds of its present breadth; and the statues of that monarch, round which the alluvial mud has accumulated to the height of nearly seven feet, are founded on the sand which once extended to some distance in front of them.

4. ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE ÆGYPTIANS.

I. Recent investigations have shown very conclusively that the ancient Ægyptians were a Caucasian race, and that the civilization of Ægypt proceeded, not from Æthiopia, down the valley of the Nile, as has generally been supposed, but in an opposite direction, from north to south. The government of Ægypt appears to have been at first a hierarchy, successively composed of the priest of one or other of the principal deities, but its duration is uncertain. We then come to the kings, the first of whom, by universal consent, was Menes. The records of the Ægyptian priests, as handed down to us by Herodotus, Manetho, Eratosthenes, and others, place the era of this monarch about 2320 B.C., in which year he is supposed to have ascended the throne.

II. The immediate successors of Menes are unknown till we come to Suphis, and his brother or brothers, to whom the great pyramid is attributed by some, and who are supposed to be the same as the Cheops and Cephren of Herodotus, although that historian has placed them much later, after Sesostris and Maris Abraham visited Ægypt about 1920 B.C., and we have the testimony of Scripture as to the high and flourishing state of the country at that early period. The Sacred Writings call the kings of Ægypt indiscriminately Pharaohs, which is now ascertained to be, not the proper name of the individual monarchs, but a prefix, like that of Casar and Augustus given to the Roman emperors.

III. Little or nothing is known of several successive dynastics, which were probably merely contemporaneous ones, reigning over various parts of the country, until we come to Osirtasen I. of the sixteenth dynasty, who began to reign about 1740 B.C. Very few monuments remain of a date prior to his reign. The obelisk of Heliopolis bears the name of Osirtasen. Under the sixteenth dynasty, about 1706 B.C., Joseph, and afterward Jacob and his family, came to Ægypt, where their descendants settled and multiplied in the land of Goshen in Lower Ægypt. Joseph died very old, under the seventeenth dynasty, which reigned from 1651 to 1575 B.C.

IV. About 1575 B.C. "there arose a new king, who knew not Joseph." This was the head of the eighteenth dynasty, from Diospolis or Thebes, which dy-

nasty reigned 340 years, according to Eusebius and other chroniclers, and which contains the names of the most illustrious sovereigns of ancient Ægypt. It appears probable that this dynasty was the continuation of the line of the old Diospolitan kings, who are mentioned as having reigned before Osirtasen I., which line may have been dispossessed, by some revolution, of the throne, or, at least, of the greater part of the country, which was occupied by a new race from Lower Ægypt during the sixteenth and seventeenth dynasties.

V. The irruption of the Hyksos, or shepherds, is supposed by some to have occurred during this period. Manetho's seventeenth dynasty consists of shepherd kings, who are said to have reigned at Memphis. These shepherds, who are represented as people with red hair and blue eyes, came from the northeast, perhaps from the mountains of Assyria. They conquered or overran the whole country, committing the greatest ravages, and at last settled in Lower Ægypt, where they had kings of their own race. They were finally expelled by Tuthmosis or Thothmes I. of the eighteenth dynasty. The flight of Moses falls under the reign of this king, 1531 B.C.; and the Exodus of the Israelites, B.C. 1491, under that of Thothmes III., about four hundred and thirty years after the visit of Abraham to Ægypt. The Scripture says that Pharaoh perished in the pursuit of the Israelites, and it is remarkable that Amunoph II., the son and successor of Thothmes, is represented in a drawing at Thebes as having come to the throne very young, and under the tutelage of his mother.

VI. Remeses II., or the Great, son of Osirei I., ascended the throne about 1350 B.C., and reigned above forty years. This is supposed to be the Sesostris or Sesosis of the Greek historians. The monuments prove him to have been one of the most warlike kings of ancient Ægypt, and it is probable from these that his campaigns extended to Asia, perhaps against the monarchs of Assyria. The nineteenth dynasty, also of Diospolitans, began about 1270 B.C., and reigned till 1170. During this period the war of Troy took place, in the reign of a Remeses, supposed to be the fifth of that name, according to Pliny. Herodotus and Diodorus give King Proteus as contemporary with the war of Troy. It is curious, that from the Exodus till Solomon's time, a period of nearly five centuries, no mention is made in the Scriptures of Ægypt, which proves that the storm of war, if such there was, passed off either to the east of Palestine, or that the Ægyptian conquerors followed the maritime road by Gaza and the Phænician coast, leaving the high land of Judæa to their right.

VII. The twenty-second dynasty, beginning with Sesonchis or Sheshonk, commences about 978 B.C. This monarch is the Shishak of Scripture, at whose court Jeroboam took refuge, and whose daughter he married; and who, after Solomon's death, plundered the Temple of Jerusalem. The twenty-third dynasty, called Diospolitan, like the preceding, began about 908 B.C. with Osorkon II. Homer is believed to have flourished about this time, and he speaks of Ægypt under its Greek name. The twenty-fourth dynasty, which is called Saite, from Sais in Lower Ægypt, begins with the Bocchoris of Manetho, about 812 B.C. His phonetic name is Bakhor or Pehor. A monarch named Sabacos, in phonetic Sabakoph, begins the twenty-fifth dynasty of Æthiopians, who about this time invaded Ægypt, or at least Upper Ægypt. Tehrak or Tirhakah, one of his successors, attacked Sennacherib 710 B.C. Sethos, a priest of Vulcan, became king, and ruled at Memphis contemporary with Tirhakah.

VIII. After the death of Sethos, a great confusion or anarchy took place. At last twelve chiefs or monarchs assembled at Memphis, and took the direction of affairs, which they retained for fifteen years, when Psamatik I., or Psammitichus, the son of Nechao or Necos, who had been put to death by Sabacos, be-

came, by the aid of Greek mercenaries, king of all Ægypt, about 650 B.C. His son Necos II. is the Pharaoh Necho of Scripture, who defeated and slew Josiah, king of Judah, 610 B.C. He also began the canal that joined the eastern branch of the Nile with the Arabian Gulf. His successor, Psamatik II., was followed by Psamatik III., supposed by some to be the Aprics of Manetho, and the Pharaoh Hophra of Scripture, who defeated the Phænicians, took Sidon, and invaded Cyprus, which was finally subjected by Amāsis, who succeeded him on the throne.

IX. The reign of Amāsis lasted forty-four years, according to a date on the monuments. His successor Psamenitus reigned only six months, when Ægypt was invaded by Cambyses, 525 B.C., who overran and ravaged the country, but lost the greater part of his army in the neighboring deserts, when seeking, for the purposes of plunder, the Temple of Jupiter Ammon. The twenty-seventh dynasty includes the Persian kings, from Cambyses to Darius Nothus, during which time Ægypt was a province, though a very unruly one, of the Persian monarchy. It was during this period that Herodotus visited Ægypt.

X. After several revolts, the Ægyptians succeeded in placing Amyrtaus, or Aomahorte, a Saite, on the throne, about 414 B.C. This king alone constitutes the twenty-eighth dynasty. He was succeeded by the twenty-ninth dynasty of Mendesians, who defended Ægypt against the repeated attacks of the Persians, with the aid of Greek auxiliaries under Agesilaus and others. At last, Nectanebus, being defeated by Ochus, fled into Æthiopia 340 B.C., and Ægypt fell again under the yoke of the Persians. The Persians were succeeded by the Macedonians, who, after the death of Alexander, founded the dynasty of the Ptolemies, or Lagida, who ruled over Ægypt for nearly three hundred years, and restored it to a considerable degree of prosperity. At the death of Cleopatra, 30 B.C., Ægypt was reduced to a Roman province by Augustus.

THE NILE AND THE DELTA.

I. The Nile has already been alluded to somewhat in detail. To this river Ægypt owes, in fact, not only all its fertility, but even its very existence as a habitable country, since without the rich and fertilizing mud deposited by the stream in its annual inundations, the land would be a sandy desert. The rise of the Nile, occasioned by the periodical rains of Central Africa, begins in June, about the summer solstice, and it continues to increase till September, overflowing the lowlands along its course. The Delta then looks like an immense marsh, interspersed with numerous islands, with villages, towns, and plantations of trees just above the water. The inundation, after having remained stationary for a few days, begins to subside, and about the end of November most of the fields are left dry, and covered with a layer of rich brown slime: this is the time when the lands are put under culture.

II. The point of the Delta in ancient times was much more to the south than at present. The Nile then branched off at Cercasorum, whereas now the apex is a few miles north of Cairo. At Cercasorum the river put forth two branches, one called the Pelusiac branch, ending in the Ostium Pelusiacum, and the other the Canōpic branch, ending in the Ostium Canopicum. The former took its name from the city of Pelusium, lying at its termination on the coast; the latter from the city of Canōpus, similarly situated. The country inclosed between these two arms the Greeks called the Delta, from its triangular form, and its resemblance to the letter Δ . Between these two main branches there were five other intervening ones, each having its termination on the coast. The five mouths

thus formed were, 1. Ostium Bolbitinum, so called from the city of Bolbitine, in its vicinity. 2. Ostium Sebennyticum, from the city of Schennytus. 3. Ostium Phatniticum or Pathmeticum; called also, by Herodotus, the Bucolic mouth. 4. Ostium Mendesium, from the city of Mendes. 5. Ostium Taniticum, from the city of Tanis; called also Saiticum, from the city of Sais. The mouths of the Nile, then, were anciently seven in number. The Canopic mouth was also called Ostium Heracleoticum and Naucraticum, and sometimes, also, Agathodamon. This arm and the Canopic were always regarded by the ancients as the chief branches, although, in reality, the Bolbitine and the Phatnitic were the largest ones.

III. The state of things at the present day is greatly altered. The apex of the Delta is much less obtuse than in ancient times, and its triangular figure is now determined by the Rosetta branch, the old Canopic, and the Damiatta branch, or old Phatnitic, although the cultivated plain known by the name of Delta extends considerably beyond to the east and west, as far as the sandy desert on either side. The Pelusiac branch is now in a great measure choked up, though it still serves partially for purposes of irrigation. The Tanitic or Saitic branch now corresponds to the Moes Canal, and the Mendesian branch with the Menzaleh Canal. Both these canals now enter Lake Menzaleh, a vast salt marsh forty miles long, which communicates with the sea by several outlets. Between the Damiatta and Rosetta branch are numerous canals, large and small, intersecting the country in every direction. The Sebennytic mouth is probably now the outlet by which the salt marsh or lake called Bourlos communicates with the sea. The only two entrances at the present day from the sea into the Nile are the Rosetta and Damiatta branches, and even these are accessible only to small vessels. West of Rosetta, a salt marsh, called Lake Etko, corresponds to the old Canopic mouth. The greatest breadth of the Delta, or cultivated plain of Lower Ægypt, is about eighty miles from east to west; its length, from the bifurcation of the river to the sea, is about ninety miles.

IV. The formation of Ægypt and its extensive Delta are beyond the reach of inquiry, and of a date long anterior to the period at which that country or Æthiopia was inhabited. In the times of the earliest Pharaohs of whom any records now remain, the whole of Lower Ægypt seems to have been densely inhabited, and positive facts contradict the assumption that the Delta has been protruded into the sea, to any great extent, within the age of history. If it had ancient cities, which were upon the sea-coast three thousand or four thousand years ago, they ought, on this supposition, as Wilkinson remarks, to have been by this time far inland.

5. MOUNTAINS.

I. Mons Casius, on the Mediterranean coast, to the east of Pelusium, and near the Palus Sirbonis. It is now El Kas or El Katich. Here Jupiter Casius had a temple; and on this mountain also was the tomb of Pompey. It must not be confounded with the Syrian Mons Casius, below Antiochia.

II. Montes Arabici, the long chain of mountains forming the eastern side of the valley of the Nile, and called at the present day Djebel Mokkatam. The ancient geographers mention five principal portions of this range, namely, 1. Mons Alabastrites or Alabastrinus, to the east of Oxyrynchus, and southeast of Alabastropolis. Here were alabaster quarries, whence the locality derived its name. Traces of these still exist. 2. Mons Porphyrites or Porphyriticus, to the east of Lycopolis. Here were porphyry quarries, held in high repute, and supplying materials not only to the Ægyptians, but to the Romans also, for columns and many ornamental purposes. The spot is now called $Djebel\ e'\ Dokhan$, or "the mountain of smoke. 3. Mons Aias or Æas, in the parallel of Thebes. 4. Mons Smaragdus, to the northwest of Berenice, and named from its emerald mines. The modern name is $Djebel\ Zabarah$. These mines have been successively worked by the ancient Ægyptians, and Romans, and by the califs and mamelukes; but they are now abandoned. They lie in a micaceous schist, and numerous shafts of considerable depth have been excavated at the foot of the mountain. 5. Mons Basanītes, between Syene and Berenice, taking its name from the quarries of basanite or touchstone ($\beta\'a\sigma avo_{\zeta}$, Lapis Lydius) that were worked here. This stone was wrought into various ornaments by the ancient Ægyptians, as it still is at the present day. The modern name of this mountain is, according to Wilkinson, Om Kerrebeh. Considerable quarry-workings are visible here.

6. LAKES AND CANALS.

1. Lacus Marcōtis, in the immediate vicinity of Alexandrea. Its earlier name was Marēa (ἡ Μαρεία λίμνη). The later Greeks gave it the name of Marcotis. According to Scylax, canals were cut in very early times, connecting this lake with the Nile, and thus furnishing it with a constant supply of fresh water. The Lake Marcotis first rose into importance after the founding of Alexandrea. Strabo describes it as being more than one hundred and fifty stadia in breadth, and not quite three hundred in length, and as containing eight islands. The country around this lake was remarkable for its fertility. The principal product was a light, sweetish white wine. For many centuries after the Greek and Roman dominion in Ægypt, this lake was dried up; but in 1801, the English troops, during the siege of Alexandrea, let in the sea by cutting a passage through the narrow neck of land that separated the ancient bed of the Lake Marcotis from Lake Aboukir or Madich. This modern Lake Marcotis, now called Birket Mariut, is much more extensive than the ancient one, occupying probably four times the space.

2. Lacus Maris, in the district of Heptanomis, west of the Nile, and south of Arsinoë or Crocodilopolis. This lake was believed by the ancients to have been entirely artificial, and to have been dug by King Mæris for the double purpose of preventing the low country from being damaged by the superabundant overflowing of the Nile, and of serving as a reservoir to supply water during the low season. Herodotus accordingly reports that during one half of the year the Nile flowed into the lake, while during the other six months a stream flowed out of it. Of the latter, however, there is no remaining trace; and the great works contrived by Meris to regulate the water have disappeared. The lake has at present every appearance of occupying a natural basin, though certainly its only apparent feeders are derived from the Nile. Wilkinson insists that Herodotus's account of the water returning from the lake to the Nile is totally inapplicable to the Lake Mœris, the level of its surface being about one hundred or one hundred and twenty feet lower than the bank of the Nile at Benisouef, which, making every allowance for the rise of the bed of the river, and the elevation of its banks, could never have been on a level, even in the time of Herodotus, with the Lake Meris. It is the Canal of Joussef to which, he says, the account of Herodotus is alone applicable, as being the work of human hands, and returning its water to the river. Near Lake Mæris was the celebrated Labyrinth. The modern name of the Lake is Birket el Korn, or "the Lake of the Horn," from its form, which is broad at the eastern end, and curves to a point

at its opposite extremity. It is about thirty miles in length, with a breadth varying from eight miles to less than one.

- 3. Nitrariæ (fodinæ) in the Nitriotic Nome, to the southeast of Alexandrea, now the basin of the Natron Lakes, containing a series of six lakes, the banks and waters of which are covered with crystals of chloride of sodium or sea-salt, and carbonate of soda or natron.
- 4. Tanis Lacus, between the Tanitic and Phatnetic mouths of the Nile, now the Lake of Menzaleh or Baheire, already mentioned in our remarks on the Delta. 5. Palus Sirbonis, near Mount Casius, and communicating with the Mediterranean by an opening, which was filled up in the time of Strabo. The lake gradually diminished in size after this, and has now almost disappeared. The modern name is Sebaket Bardoil. 6. Lacus Amari, near Arsinoë or Cleopatris. They derived their name from their bitter, brackish taste, a defect which was subsequently obviated by the Canal of Ptolemy, which let in the water of the Nile, and rendered them perfectly sweet. The modern name is Scheib.

The only ancient canals deserving of particular mention, among the large number by which Ægypt, and especially the Delta, was intersected, are the following: 1. The Canal of Maris, now Bahr Joussef, connecting the Lake Maris (Birket el Korn) with the Nile, and of which we have already made mention. 2. The Canal of Sesostris or Ptolemy, called also the Canal of Hero, cut from the Pelusiac branch of the Nile to the Sinus Arabicus, which it entered near Arsinoë. It was commenced, according to some, by Sesostris; but, according to others, by Necho, or rather Psammiticus II., who desisted from the undertaking on being warned by an oracle that he was laboring for the barbarians. Darius Hystaspis continued it, but left it unfinished. Ptolemy Philadelphus completed it, and made sluices to regulate the quantity of water, while they permitted the passage of vessels. They had also for their object the exclusion of the salt water; and so effectually was this done, that the bitter lakes, which lay in the line of the canal, were rendered perfectly sweet, and abounded with Nile fish, and the usual water-fowl of Ægypt. It was also called Trajan's Canal (Fluvius Trajani), from its having been repaired in later days by that emperor.

7. Antiquities of ÆGYPT.

UNDER this head we will briefly notice merely a few of the more prominent objects of interest in this remarkable country.

Pyramids.—The Pyramids of Ægypt, especially the two largest of the pyramids at Geezeh, are the most stupendous masses of building in stone that human labor has ever been known to accomplish; and we have records of their having been objects of wonder and curiosity from the age of Herodotus, who was born 484 B.C., to the present time. The Ægyptian pyramids, of which, large and small, and in different states of preservation, the number is very considerable, are all situated on the west side of the Nile, and extend in an irregular line, and in groups at some distance from each other, from the neighborhood of Geezeh. a village opposite to Cairo, as far south as twenty-nine degrees north latitude, a length of between sixty and seventy miles. The three principal pyramids are those of Geezeh. They stand on a plateau or terrace of limestone, which is a projection from the Libyan mountain chain, and is more than one hundred feet above the level of the Ægyptian plain. The largest, called the pyramid of Cheops, occupies a base of seven hundred and sixty-seven feet square, and rises to the height of four hundred and eighty feet nine inches, being, therefore, fortythree feet nine inches higher than St. Peter's at Rome, and one hundred and

thirty-six feet nine inches higher than St. Paul's in London. It is built, like the others, of large blocks of stone, which form so many gigantic steps (two hundred in number), to the top, where there is a small platform. This pyramid has long been open, and contains a small chamber, with a hollow sarcophagus. Several other apartments and winding passages have lately been discovered in its recesses by persevering travellers, particularly by Col. Vyse, who has succeeded in revealing its whole internal structure. The next adjoining pyramid is that of Cephren, the brother and successor of Cheops. It was opened by Belzoni, who discovered that he had been anticipated by Arab investigators several centuries earlier, but he still found in a sarcophagus some bones, which are believed to be those of a cow or ox. The third pyramid is that of Mycerinus, the son of Cheops. The pyramids were undoubtedly sepulchral monuments. According to Lepsius, the mode of constructing them was as follows. When a king commenced his reign, the first thing done, after levelling the surface of the rock for the pyramid's base, was to excavate a chamber intended for his tomb, under ground, with a passage communicating with the surface, and to erect a course of masonry above, which served for the nucleus of the pyramid. If the king died during the year, the masonry was immediately cased over, and a small pyramid was formed. If he continued to live, another course of stone was added in height, and the length of the lower stage increased. During subsequent years the same process was repeated, and the pyramid thus continued to be increased every year until the death of the king in whose reign it was erected, fresh courses being added each year of his life. When the king died, the work of enlargement ceased, and a casing was put on the whole structure.

Sphinx.—The Egyptian sphinxes are lions, but without wings, in which latter respect they differ from those of Greece. They are represented in the same recumbent posture as the Grecian ones, lying, namely, upon the front part of the body, with the paws stretched forward. The upper part of the body is either human, and mostly female, or they have the head of a ram. In some cases the head is covered with a kind of cap, which also covers part of the neck. These sphinxes were generally placed at the entrance of temples, where they often formed a long avenue leading to the sacred edifice. The largest of the existing sphinxes is that of Geczeh, which is hewn out of the rock, and is of the enormous dimensions of one hundred and forty-three feet in length, and sixty-two feet in height in front. It was formerly covered to the neck with sand, which was cleared away by Signor Caviglia. The greater part, however, is now covered up again, leaving little more than the head and shoulders visible.

Vocal Memnon.—There are many colossal statues in Ægypt which have been called Memnonian, of which the most celebrated is the vocal statue described by Strabo and Pausanias. At sunrise a sound was said to proceed from this statue which Pausanias compares to the snapping of a harp or lute string. Strabo states that he heard the sound himself in company with Ælius Gallus; and Tacitus relates that Germanicus also heard it. This statue is identified, by the descriptions of Strabo and Pausanias, with the northernmost of the two colossal statues in the Theban plain, on the west bank of the Nile. Its height, according to modern travellers, is about fifty feet; and its legs contain numerous inscriptions in Latin and Greek, commemorating the names of those who had heard the sound. Most of these inscriptions belong to the period of the early Roman emperors. This statue is now ascertained to be that of Amenophis II., the son of Thutmosis, and who is said to have driven the shepherds out of Ægypt. There is some difficulty, however, notwithstanding the inscriptions upon it, in identifying this statue with the one described by Strabo and Pausa-

nias. These writers say that the upper part had in their time fallen down; according to one account, in consequence of an earthquake; while another ascribed it to Cambyses, who, it is said, suspecting some imposture, caused the statue to be broken off in the middle. At the present day, however, the upper part exists in its proper position, though not in a single piece. Heeren conjectures that the broken statue might have been repaired after the time of Strabo. The sound produced by the statue is now supposed to have proceeded from a stone in the lap of the statue, which was struck by a person concealed in a recess behind it, and which emitted, as it still does, when struck, a metallic sound. The head of the colossal Memnon in the British Museum has no claim to be considered the vocal statue.

Among other remains of Ægyptian greatness we may name, 1. The Memnönium at Thebes, on the western side of the river, a splendid structure originally, and probably the same with the tomb of Osymandias, described by Diodorus Siculus. The more correct name of the edifice, however, would be Remesēum, since it is now ascertained to have been the palace-temple of Remeses II., one of whose titles, Miamun, was corrupted by the Greeks into Memnon. 2. The great temple at Medcenet Haboo, or the palace-temple of Remeses III. 3. The tombs of the kings, to the west of this latter place, cut in the calcareous rock, at different levels. They are all of extraordinary splendor, the largest and most magnificent being that of Remeses Miamun, which is adorned with sculptures of the highest interest.

PLACES IN ÆGYPT.

DELTA.

1. Alexandrea, founded by Alexander the Great, who, during his visit to Ægypt, B.C. 332, gave orders to erect this city between the sea and the Mareotic Lake. The architect was Dinocrates, a Macedonian. A large part, but not the whole of it, was contained within the present walls, which are chiefly the work of the Arabs. One main long street, about three miles in length, ran through the city, from the eastern extremity to the necropolis or cemetery of Alexandrea, at the western; and this was intersected by another main street, running nearly north, more than a mile in length, in a direction from the Mareotic Lake. The object of this arrangement was to give the city the benefit of ventilation from the north winds. The main land and the island of Pharos were connected by a dike, called the Heptastadium, in which, at each end, there was a passage for vessels from one port to the other. Over these passages there were also bridges. On the rocks now occupied by the present Pharos, a magnificent light-house was constructed by Sostratus of Cnidus, in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus, B.C. 283. The port bounded by the two promontories, the Pharos and Lochias, by the northeast part of the city and the Heptastadium, was called the Great Port. The other port was called Eunostus, or "safe return." The city was divided into several quarters: the court end, otherwise called Bruchion, contained the famous library, consisting, it is said, of seven hundred thousand volumes, and, connected with it, the Museum, a college or retreat for learned men, where they were retained at the public expense. A place called Soma, "the body," in the quarter of the palaces, contained the tomb of Alexander the Great. From B.C. 323 to B.C. 30, Alexandrea was the residence of the Greek kings of Ægypt, the Ptolemies, distinguished for commerce, and the resort of many foreign nations, especially Jews; and also the centre of the scientific knowledge of that day. In the Alexandrine war, with Julius Cæsar, B.C. 48, the city sustained much damage, and a large part of the library was burned; but this latter loss was afterward, in some degree, remedied by the addition of the library of Pergamus, which Antony presented to Cleopatra. Alexandrea fell into the hands of the Romans B.C. 30, and continued a flourishing commercial city under the Roman emperors, and afterward under the eastern empire. In A.D. 640 it was taken by the Arabs under Omar, on which occasion the splendid library is said, though erroneously, to have been destroyed by the conquerors. On the founding of New Cairo, in A.D. 969, Alexandrea gradually sank to the condition of a second-rate city; and the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1497, tended still farther to diminish its commerce; but it is again becoming an important position, in consequence of its lying on the over-land route to India.

2. Canobus or Canopus, about twelve miles to the northeast of Alexandrea. and a short distance to the west of the Ostium Canopicum, to which it gave name. It was a very ancient city, and a place of considerable commerce prior to the founding of Alexandrea. It was also the capital of the Menelaïtic Nome. According to the Greek fable, with which the appellation of the nome is connected, this city took its name from Canopus, the pilot of Menelaus, who was said to have been buried here. Canopus was famed for its temple and oracle of Serapis, and the festivals celebrated at this temple made the morals of the people extremely dissolute. Some traces of the ancient city exist a short distance to the west of Aboukir. 3. Hermöpölis Parva, southeast of Alexandrea. It is now Damanhour. 4. Andropolis, to the southeast, the capital of the Andropolitic Nome, and subsequently the head quarters of a Roman legion. It is now Chabur. 5. Butos or Buto, on the southern shore of the Lake Butos, now Lake Bourlos, the outlet from which formed the Ostium Schennyticum. It was famed for its temples of Apollo, Diana, and Latona, that is, of Ægyptian deities supposed to coincide with these. The temple of Latona had a celebrated oracle connected with it. Butos answers probably to Kom Kasir. 6. Naucrătis, to the southwest, on the right bank of the Canopic arm of the Nile, in the Saïtic Nome. It was said to have been founded by a Milesian colony, but was probably of much earlier date. It was for a long time the only place in Ægypt where the Greeks were allowed to settle and carry on traffic. Naucratis was the native city of Athenœus and Julius Pollux. Its remains are to be sought near the modern Salhadschar.

7. Saïs, to the southeast, and the capital of the Saïtic Nome. It lay on the left bank of the Sebennytic branch of the Nile, and was one of the most important cities of the Delta, partly on account of the annual festival celebrated here in honor of the goddess Neith, regarded as identical with Minerva, and which drew a large concourse of visitors to the place; and partly because the Saïtic, or twenty-sixth dynasty of the Pharaohs, acknowledged it as their native city, and were interred here. When, however, the Persian power was established in Ægypt, and Memphis again became the capital, Saïs declined in importance. The site, now called Sa, is marked merely by ruins. At a little distance south of this place was a celebrated temple of Osiris, where that deity was said to have been interred; an honor claimed by many other Ægyptian sites. 8. Busiris, to the southeast, on the Phatnetic branch, and the capital of the Busiritic Nome. Here was a very sacred temple of Isis, to which pilgrimages were made, and where a solemn annual festival was celebrated. The site of this city is now called Aboussir. 9. Schennytus, to the east of Saïs, and giving name to the Sebennytic branch of the Nile. It was the capital of the Sebennytic Nome, and its site is occupied by the modern Semmenud. 10. Thmuis, to the east of the preceding, and the capital of the Thmuitic Nome. The goat

was worshipped here with peculiar honors, and the name of the city, according to St. Jerome, signified "a goat." In the time of Ammianus Marcellinus, Thmuis was one of the largest cities in Ægypt. The modern name of the site is Tel et-Mai. 11. Mendes, to the northeast of Sebennytus, and giving name to the Mendesian branch of the Nile, on which it lay. Here also the goat was held in great religious reverence, and, according to Herodotus, the name of the city meant "a goat," what St. Jerome asserts of Thmuis. The site is now called Achmoun. 12. Tanis, to the east of the preceding, the capital of the Tanitic Nome, and on the Tanitic branch of the Nile. It was an important city at an early period, and the residence of one of Manetho's dynasties of Pharaohs. It is the same with the Zoan of Scripture, and is stated by the Psalmist to be the spot where Moses performed those miracles that ended in the liberation of the Israelites. The site is now called San, and is remarkable for the height and extent of its mounds of ruins.

13. Bubastus, to the southwest, the capital of the Bubastite Nome, with a celebrated temple of Bubastis (Pasht), or Diana. The festival of the goddess was remarkable, not only for its splendor, but also for the large numbers that attended; as many as seventy thousand persons, exclusive of children, being drawn hither on this occasion. The Scripture name of this place is Phi Beseth. Here also the sacred cats were interred. The modern name is Tel-Basta. 14. Athribis, to the southwest, the capital of the Athribitic Nome. It is now Atryb or Trieb, with some striking remains. 15. Cercasorum or Cercasora, at the apex of the Delta, where the Nile branches off. It is now El Arkas. 16. Babylon, to the southeast of the preceding, and on the opposite bank of the Nile, just where the great canal commenced that led off to the Sinus Arabicus, and not far from the pyramids and Memphis. According to the best authorities, it does not appear to have existed in the time of the Pharaohs, but to have come into being under the Persians, who settled here a number of refractory Babylonians from Upper Asia. Under the Romans it became important as a military post, since here the valley of the Nile begins to contract as you advance into Upper Ægypt. A castle accordingly was erected in this quarter, and a Roman legion was stationed here. At a later day, this place took the name of Fostát, from the "leather tent" (fostát) which Amru, the general of Omar, pitched here for himself during the siege of the Roman fortress. Fostat continued to be the royal residence, as well as the capital of Ægypt, until Goher el Kaed, having been sent by Moez to conquer Ægypt, founded a new city called Musr cl Kåherah (Cairo), which four years after (in A.D. 974) became the capital of the country, and Fostat received the new appellation of Musr el Atéckeh, or "Old Musr," corrupted by Europeans into Old Cairo.

17. Heliŏpŏlis, a short distance to the northeast of Babylon, and more celebrated in a religious than a political point of view. As its name indicates, it was the sacred city of Osiris, or the Sun, and contained one of the three chief sacerdotal colleges of Ægypt, the stations of the other two being respectively at Memphis and Thebes. Herodotus is the earliest one of the Greek writers that makes mention of this city, and he speaks of the priests of Heliopolis as being the best acquainted with the history of their country. Other authorities also describe them as famed for their wisdom. According to Berosus, this was the city where Moses was educated. It was also a place of resort for all the Greeks who visited Ægypt for instruction, among whom may be mentioned Herodotus, Pythagoras, Plato, and Eudoxus. The city was built, according to Strabo, on a large mound or raised site, before which were lakes that received the water of the neighboring canals. It had a celebrated temple and oracle of the Sun, or

Osiris, and in this temple the sacred ox Mnevis was fed and adored, as Apis was at Memphis. Heliopolis suffered severely by the invasion of Cambyses. Many of its obelisks, and probably other monuments, were afterward taken away to Alexandrea and Rome, and when Strabo saw the place it had the character of a deserted city. Its college of priests no longer existed, and those only who had charge of the temple, and who explained the sacred rites to strangers, remained there. The ancient Ægyptian name of this city was, in hieroglyphics, Re-Ei or Ei-Re, "the House" or "Abode of the Sun," corresponding to the title Beth-Shemesh, of the same import, which was applied to it by the Jews, while in Scripture and in Coptic it is called On. The remains of Heliopolis are near the modern Matareh, and consist of several mounds. A solitary obelisk alone remains erect, bearing on it the name of Osirtasen I., who laid the foundations of the temple here. This monarch ascended the throne about 1740 B.C.

18. Arsinöë, at the head of the Sinus Heroöpolites, or Gulf of Suez, and not far from the spot where the modern town of Suez stands. Ptolemy Philadelphus constructed the harbor, and called the place after his queen Arsinoë. It was connected with the Nile by means of the Canal of Ptolemy, and for a long period was the very life of the navigation on the Sinus Arabicus, forming the connecting link between the traffic of Ægypt and that of the east. Subsequently, however, the dangerous navigation of the upper part of the gulf induced the Ptolemies to construct harbors lower down, and Arsinoë from this time declined. Its remains are at Adscherud.

19. Cleopatris, in the immediate vicinity of the preceding. It was of later origin than Arsinoë, but so near to it that both are commonly regarded as forming one place. 20. Heroëpolis, to the northeast of Heliopolis, and northwest of Arsinoë, and situate on the Canal of Ptolemy, near the upper part of the Lacus Amari. Some make it the same with the Avaris of Manetho; more probably, however, it was a place of comparatively recent origin, founded by the Greeks for commercial purposes. It remained a place of importance as long as the Canal of Ptolemy formed one of the channels of communication in this quarter. It sunk, however, when the canal was neglected, and its remains are supposed to be buried beneath the sand. Strabo and Pliny err in placing it on the gulf.

21. Pelusium, to the northeast, at the Pelusiae mouth of the Nile, to which it gave name. It was surrounded by marshes, and was regarded as the key of Ægypt in this quarter. Its Scripture name is Sin, and its old Ægyptian one is thought to have been similar to the Peremoun or Pheromi of the Copts. The Greek name Pelusium is derived from πηλός, "mire," in allusion to the peculiar situation of the place. The Hebrew name has the same meaning, as has also the modern appellation Tinch given to the site. This city fell in importance after the Persians had diverted the arm of the Nile on which it stood, and had taken it and destroyed its fortifications. 22. Rhinocorūra or Rhinocolura, to the east, on the immediate confines of Syria, and sometimes, though erroneously, regarded as belonging to that country. The modern El Arccsh occupies its site. It derived its name, according to Strabo, from the circumstance of malefactors having been sent thither by one of the Æthiopian invaders of Ægypt, as to a place of exile, after having been first deprived of their noses (piv, the nose, and κολούω, to mutilate). The story is evidently untrue, and the name is probably of Ægyptian, not of Grecian origin. This city was an important commercial place, and a great mart for the Arabian trade. Quails were very abundant in its vicinity. The Wady el Areesh is the ancient Torrens Ægypti, or River of Ægypt. 23. Tamiathis, some distance to the northwest of Pelusium, and on the Phatnetic arm of the Nile, near its mouth. It is now Damietta.

HEPTANOMIS.

1. Memphis, a celebrated city on the left side of the Nile, and about sixteen miles south of the apex of the Delta. It was said to have been founded by Menes, the first king of Ægypt, who changed, by means of a large embankment, the course of the Nile, which until then had run nearer the Libyan mountains, and built Memphis within the ancient bed of the stream. According to Herodotus, the river was turned off one hundred stadia above Memphis, and the dike constructed to prevent its returning to its original channel was kept up with great care by the successors of Menes even to the time of the Persians. Menes also erected here a magnificent temple to Phtha or Vulcan. The city contained likewise other splendid temples, and was, moreover, the residence of one of the three sacerdotal colleges of the land, the other two being respectively at Heliopolis and Thebes. The sacred Apis was also fed and worshipped here, his temple being close to that of Phtha. Memphis appears to have been the capital of Lower Ægypt, as Thebes was of Upper Ægypt, in those early times when the land was ruled by contemporaneous dynasties; and afterward, when all Ægypt became united under the sway of one ruler, this city was made the capital of the country in preference to Thebes. It continued to be the capital under the Persian sway also, but declined after Alexandrea became the seat of government, although Strabo subsequently, in Roman times, describes it as still large and populous, next to Alexandrea in size, and, like that city, filled with foreign residents. The palaces, however, he speaks of as being ruined and deserted. The wealth, as well as the inhabitants of Memphis, passed at a later day to the new Arab capital of Fostat, and the ancient city in a few years ceased to exist. Its site, which has been difficult to ascertain, in consequence of the old material being taken to build modern edifices, is now indicated by a large colossus of Remeses II., a few fragments of granite, and some substructions. Memphis is called in Scripture Moph or Noph. In Coptic it is styled Mcfi, Momf, and Menf. A little to the north of Memphis the pyramids began.

2. Acanthus, to the south, and the southernmost city of the Memphitic Nome. It is now Dashur. 3. Arsinoë or Crocodīlopolis, on the west of the Nile, and southwest of Memphis. It was called Arsinoë in honor of the queen of Ptolemy Philadelphus. The earlier appellation was expressed in Greek by Crocodilopolis, the crocodile being here an object of religious worship, and a tamed representative of this fearful class of creatures was carefully nurtured and attended to in an adjacent pond or tank. Strabo gives an account, as an eye-witness, of this curious custom. The bodies of the sacred crocodiles were deposited after death in the cells of the Labyrinth, which stood near this city. Arsinoë is now a pile of ruins, a little distance to the north of Medinet el Faioum. In the vicinity of this city was the celebrated Lake Maris, already described. Aphroditopolis, or "City of Venus," to the east, on the right bank of the Nile, and where, according to Strabo, a white heifer was worshipped. The ruins of

the place are at Atfyh.

5. Ancyron Polis ('Αγκυρῶν πόλις), or "City of Anchors," to the south, and so named because the inhabitants wrought anchors from the stone hewn out of the neighboring quarries. 6. Heracleopolis Magna, or "Great City of Hercules," southeast of Arsinoë, in one of the largest islands of the Nile, and the capital of the Heracleotic Nome, which was entirely comprised in this island. The ichneumon was worshipped here, on account of its utility in destroying asps and the eggs of crocodiles. There were bitter feuds, therefore, between the inhabitants of this place and those of Crocodilopolis. This city was termed

Magna for distinction' sake from Heracleopolis Parva, in the Delta, southwest of Pelusium. Its site is marked by the modern village of Ahnas. 7. Oxyrynchus, to the southwest, on the left bank of the Nile, and the capital of the Oxyrynchite Nome. It received its name from the circumstance of a fish with a sharp snout $(b\xi v_{\xi}, bv_{\chi} x_{\xi})$, a species of sturgeon, being worshipped here. Its site is marked by the modern Behnese. 8. Cynŏpŏlis, to the east, on an island in the Nile. Here the dog was worshipped as the symbol of Anubis; whence the Greek name of the place, $Kvv\bar{\omega}v \pi \delta \lambda \iota_{\xi}$, or $Kvv\delta\pi \delta \iota_{\xi}$. D'Anville places its site at Samallut.

9. Alabastron or Alabastropolis, to the northeast, in the Arabian mountain chain, and famed for its artists, who, from the alabaster dug in Mons Alabastrinus, carved all kinds of vases and ornaments. 10. Speos Artemidos, or "Cave of Diana," a large grotto to the south of Cynopolis, sacred to the goddess Pasht, the Ægyptian Diana. It is wholly excavated in the rock, and was begun by Thothmes II., who adorned it with sculptures. Other sculptures were added by Osirci, father of Remeses III.; but the excavation was never completed. About one mile to the northwest of this spot are the more celebrated grottoes or catacombs of Beni Hassan. 11. Hermöpölis Magna, southeast of Oxyrynchus, on the left bank of the Nile, and so called for distinction' sake from Hermopolis Parva, near Alexandrea. It was a city of great antiquity, and derived its name from the worship of Thoth, the Ægyptian Hermes or Mercury. Its ruins are at Achmunein. To the south of this place was a fortified post called Hermopolitana Phylace, marking the southern limit of Heptanomis. 12. Antinoöpolis, to the east, opposite to Hermopolis, and on the right bank of the Nile. Its earlier name was Besa, from an Ægyptian deity who had an oracle here. The name, however, was subsequently changed to Antinoöpolis, "the City of Antinous," from the circumstance of Antinous, the favorite of Hadrian, having drowned himself here. It was greatly embellished by that emperor, and became a magnificent place. The ruins are at Shekh Abadeh.

THEBAIS OR UPPER EGYPT.

1. Lycopolis, on the left bank, and the capital of the Lycopolitic Nome. Its Greek name means "the City of Wolves," from the circumstance of the wolf being worshipped here, on account of an invading army of Æthiopians having been put to flight here by a large pack of these animals. The site is now called Syouth. There are some remarkable rock-tombs in the vicinity. 2. Anteopölis, or "City of Antæus," to the southeast, on the right bank. It derived its name from Antæus, whom Osiris made governor of his Libyan and Æthiopian possessions, and whom Hercules destroyed. Antaus had a temple here. The modern village Quaou or Kau stands near the ruins of the place. 3. Aphroditopolis, or "City of Venus," to the southwest, now Tachta. 4. Pānopölis, or "City of Pan," to the southeast, on the right bank, and capital of the Panopolitic Nome. Its Ægyptian name was Chemmis. The ruins are at Akhenyn. According to Strabo, it was principally occupied by linen-weavers and stonecutters. Herodotus speaks of a temple of Perseus here, and says that the Chemmites claimed him as a native of their city. 5. Ptolemais Hermii, to the south, on the opposite side of the stream. It appears from its name (Πτολεμαίς ή Ερμείου) to have been originally an Ægyptian city, consecrated to Thoth or Hermes, but rebuilt or re-established by one of the Ptolemies. It rose in importance when Abydus, its neighbor, declined, and eventually rivalled Memphis in size. It received a severe blow, however, to its prosperity, by its resistance to the Emperor Probus. Its ruins are near the village of Mensich.

6. Abydus, to the southeast, on the same side of the stream. Strabo describes it as once next to Thebes in size, though reduced in his days to a small place. The same writer mentions the palace of Memnon in this city, built on the plan of the Labyrinth, though less intricate. This structure is now ascertained to have been commenced by Osirei, and completed by his son Remeses II. Osiris had here a splendid temple, and Plutarch makes this city to have been the true burial-place of that deity, an honor to which so many cities of Egypt aspired. He also informs us that the more distinguished Ægyptians frequently selected Abydus for a place of sepulture. The god Besa had an oracle at this place, as at Antinoopolis. Abydus is now a heap of ruins, as its name El Matfoon, "the Buried," plainly implies. One of the walls of the famous temple of Osiris in this place had a list of the Ægyptian kings sculptured on it. This important record, commonly called the "Tablet of Abydus," is now in the British Museum. It contains a series of kings' names, the predecessors of Remeses II., but unfortunately the commencement has been broken away, so that the order of succession of the earliest Pharaohs is still a desideratum.

7. This (θίς), a small but very ancient city, to the east of and near Abydus. The inhabitants are called by Stephanus $Thinita(\Theta \iota \nu i \tau a \iota)$, a name derived from the genitive $\Theta \iota \nu \delta \varsigma$. This place gave its appellation to the Thinitic Nome. 8. Diospolis Parva, to the east of the preceding, and on the same side of the stream. It was called Parva, for distinction' sake from Diospolis Magna, or Thebes. The site is marked by the modern village of Hou. 9. Tentyra (τὰ $T \ell \nu \tau \nu \rho a$), and also $T ent \tilde{y} r i s$, to the east, on the same side of the Nile, and the capital of the Tentyritic Nome. This city contained temples of Isis, Typhon, and Athor or Venus, the last-mentioned deity being particularly worshipped here, and the name Tentyra being probably taken from the Ægyptian Tci-n-Athor, "the Abode of Athor." The people of this city were at bitter enmity with those of Ombos, higher up the Nile, the Tentyrites hunting and killing the crocodile, and the Ombites worshipping it; and a horrible instance of religious fury, which occurred in consequence of this state of feeling, forms the subject of the fifteenth satire of Juvenal. About half a league from the ruins of Tentyra stands the modern village of Denderah. From the temple of Isis at Tentyra was obtained the famous zodiac, about the antiquity of which such extravagant notions were at first formed, but which has now been proved to be not much more than eighteen hundred years old, since the name of the Emperor Nero appears, among others, on the portico of the structure.

10. Coptos, to the southeast, on the right side of the stream, and the capital of the Coptite Nome. Its earlier name appears to have been Chemmis. It became a place of great commercial importance under the Ptolemies, and a depôt for Indian and Arabian wares, brought by caravans from Berenice and Myos Hormos, on the Sinus Arabicus, and then sent from Coptos down the Nile to Alexandrea. It was, in fact, well situated for this communication with the countries of the more remote east, since the Arabian mountain chain, which elsewhere forms a complete barrier along the coast, has here an opening, that, after various windings, conducts to the shore of the Sinus Arabicus. Along this route the caravans proceeded. The road from Coptos to Berenice was the work of Ptolemy Philadelphus, and was two hundred and fifty-eight miles in length. There were watering stations, called Hydrēa (Υδορεῖα), along its whole extent. The ruins of Coptos are now called Keft.

11. Thebæ, to the south, on both sides of the Nile, a celebrated city, and the capital of Upper Ægypt, or the Thebaïs. The name Thebæ is supposed to be corrupted from the Ægyptian Tapé, which in the Memphitic dialect of the Coptic

is pronounced Theba. In hieroglyphics it is written Ap, Apé, or, with the feminine article, Tapé, meaning "head," Thebes being the head or capital of the country. In Scripture it is called No Ammon. The Greeks styled it also Diospolis Magna, the first part of which answers to the Ægyptian Amunei, "the abode of Amun," or the Ægyptian Jupiter. The period of its foundation is unknown. It must, however, from its very situation, have been at a very early period the middle point for the caravan trade to the south, and through it passed very probably all the productions and wares of Asia. Its most flourishing period appears to have been under the successive dynasties of the Diospolitan kings, from B.C. 1578 to B.C. 820, when it was the capital of all Ægypt, and the residence of the kings, whose tombs are still extant in the rocks on the western side of the city, and extend even to the borders of the desert. Homer speaks of the splendor, greatness, and wealth of Thebes, and calls it "the city with an hundred gates," each of which sent out two hundred men with horses and chariots. Thebes, however, never had any walls, and therefore Homer was either misled by the Phænician traders from whom he in all probability received his account, or else the gates referred to are those of the propylæa of the temples. Thebes stood partly on the east, and partly on the west of the Nile. The western division had the distinctive appellation of Pathyris, or, as Ptolemy writes it, Tathyris, being under the peculiar protection of Athor. Here stood in particular the celebrated Memnonium, to which allusion has already been made, and on this side, moreover, was the extensive Necropolis. The principal part of the city, however, lay on the eastern bank of the stream. Thebes sank in importance when the seat of government was transferred to Memphis, but still contained one of the three chief sacerdotal colleges of Ægypt, and could boast of a numerous population, until it felt the fury of Cambyses during the Persian invasion, when its private dwellings were for the most part destroyed, and its great architectural works more or less injured. After this its decline became more rapid. During the sway of the Ptolemies, when the capital was in the northern extremity of the country, Thebes appears to have been neglected by the monarchs of the land. In the reign of Ptolemy Lathyrus, about B.C. 86, it revolted, and after a siege of three years was taken and plundered by the Greeks. As early as the time of Strabo, the place consisted of a number of villages, and what remained of the ancient city was composed chiefly of temples. Under the Roman dominion, something appears to have been done to restore or preserve the venerable city; but new calamities broke in upon it when Christianity was introduced into Upper Ægypt, and the Christians, in their religious zeal, destroyed as much as they could of the works of the ancient idolaters. At present the site of the ancient city is occupied by four principal villages, Luxor and Carnac on the eastern, and Gournou and Medeenet-Haboo on the western side of the river. The ruins are numerous and splendid, but the most imposing of all are those of the great temple at Carnac.

12. Hermonthis, a short distance to the southwest, on the left bank, and the capital of the Hermonthitic Nome. It contained temples of Osiris and Horus. Strabo says that Apollo and Jupiter were also worshipped here, meaning, probably, the Ægyptian Mandoo and Amun. The sacred bull Basis was also worshipped at this place. The remains of Hermonthis are at Erment. 13. Latopolis, to the south, taking its name from the worship of the Latus fish, which, according to Strabo, shared with the goddess Neith, of which it was the symbol, the honors of the sanctuary. The ruins of this place are at Esné, and are said to be very imposing and elegant. 14. Apollinopolis Magna, or "Great City of Apollo," to the southeast, on the same bank, and the capital of the Apollinitic

Nome. The god Hor-Hat, the same as Agathodæmon, was worshipped here. The people of this city hunted and destroyed the crocodile. The modern Edfoo occupies its site. We have here the ruins of two temples, one of them on a grand scale. 15. Ombos or Ombi, to the southeast, on the right bank, and the capital of the Ombitic Nome. Between the inhabitants of this place and those of Tentyra a bitter feud prevailed, to which we have already alluded, the latter destroying the crocodile, and the Ombites worshipping it. The ruins of Ombos are at Kom Ombu. 16. Syene, to the south, now Assouan, a frontier place, and the seat of a garrison. Juvenal is said to have been banished to this spot, under the pretence of being sent to command the legion stationed here. Near Syene is the lesser cataract of the Nile, where the terraces of red granite cross the bed of the Nile. Here were the quarries from which the obelisks and colossal statues of the Ægyptians were wrought. At the time of the summer solstice, all bodies, it was said, appeared shadowless in Syene, and a well at this place was at such times illuminated to the bottom. As this place lies in latitude 24° 5', a fact known even to Eratosthenes, and as the most northern vertical point of the sun in summer is at latitude 23° 28', it was impossible that at Syene, which lies 37' north of that point, objects should be completely without shadow; but the difference certainly is too small to be taken into account.

17. Elephantine or Elephantis, an island in the Nile, to the south of Syene, about the distance of a semi-stadium, and containing a city of the same name. It was remarkable for its fertility. The lesser cataract is not far distant, and hence Elephantine became the depôt for all the goods that were destined for the countries to the south, and that required land-carriage in this quarter, in order to avoid the falls in the river. In the time of the Pharaohs a garrison was stationed here against the Æthiopians, and the post was also subsequently occupied by the Persians and the Romans. In the Roman times, however, the frontiers were pushed farther to the south. The modern name of Elephantine is Diesiret Assouan, or "Island of Assuan." 18. Phila, an island to the south of Elephantine, and the southernmost point of Ægypt, with a city of the same name. The frontier of Ægypt was properly at Philæ, and the Ægyptian appellation of the island, from which the Greek Φιλαί was formed, appears to have been Phi lakh, "the extremity." The modern name of Philæ is Djesiret el Birbe, or "Temple-island," in allusion to the remains of antiquity on it. Near Philae was a small rocky island called Abatos ("Abaτος) by the Greeks, from its being permitted the priests alone to set foot on it, and the island's being inaccessible to all other persons. In this place was the tomb of Osiris, his remains having been here deposited by Isis. The modern name of the island is Biggeh.

19. Myos Hormos, a sea-port on the Sinus Arabicus, chosen by Ptolemy Philadelphus, for the convenience of commerce, in preference to Arsinoë, on account of the difficulty of navigating the western head of the gulf. It was afterward called Aphrodites Portus, or "the Harbor of Venus." The entrance was crooked and winding, on account of islands lying in front, and hence, perhaps, may have arisen the earlier appellation Mvo_{δ} " $O\rho\mu\sigma_{\delta}$," Mouse's Harbor," the port being compared to a mouse's hole. Some modern scholars less correctly suppose the name to mean "Muscle harbor," from the great number of muscle-shells found here; the term $\mu\tilde{v}_{\delta}$ meaning in Greek both "a mouse" and "a muscle." The modern name is said to be Suffange el Bahri. Forbiger is wrong in making Myos Hormos answer to Coseir, which lies much farther south. 20. Berenice, a considerable distance to the southeast, also on the Sinus Arabicus, and a port of great celebrity, from which traffic was carried on with Arabia Felix and India. There was a commercial road across the country from this port to Coptos on

the Nile, two hundred and fifty-eight miles in length, constructed by Ptolemy Philadelphus, and to which allusion has already been made. The city of Berenice itself was founded by this same monarch, and named after his mother. The modern name is Sakayt cl Kublec, or the "Southern Sakayt."

OASES.

Our description of Ægypt will end with a brief account of the Oăses. One of these, the Oasis of Ammon, assigned to Marmarica, has already been described in our account of that country. Two remain to be mentioned, namely, the Oasis Major and Oasis Minor. The Greek term "Oaois, sometimes, and more correctly, written Avaois, contains the same root with the Coptic Ouahe, and is derived, in common with the latter, from the Ægyptian Aua. The Arabic name is Wah.

I. Oăsis Major ('Oasiç Meya $\lambda \hat{\eta}$), or Greater Oasis, the more southern of the two, and called by the Arabs Wah cl Khargch. The capital of this Oasis was Ibis, or, in Ægyptian, Hcbi, "the Plough," under which character it is frequently designated in the hieroglyphics. Near this city stood a temple of Amun, the ruins of which still remain. The army of Cambyses is said to have passed through this Oasis when going to attack the Ammonians, and it was in the desert, about half way between this and Siwah, that they are supposed to have perished. The Oases are little noticed by the ancient writers except as place-of exile. One of the most remarkable persons banished to the Greater Oasiswas Nestorius, in A.D. 435.

II. Oăsis Minor ('Oασις Μικρά), or Lesser Oasis, now called Wah el Behnessa This Oasis was assigned to Heptanomis, and lay to the north of the preceding. It contained one fortified post or city, named Trinythis, the ruins of which are still visible. Belzoni found in this Oasis a fountain, the waters of which resembled, in their changes of temperature at different times the famous Fons Solis in the Oasis of Ammon.

8. ÆTHIOPIA.

1. NAME AND BOUNDARIES.

I. The ancients had a very vague and indefinite notion respecting Æthiopia. In general, however, they regarded it as bounded on the north by Ægypt, on the east by the Sinus Arabicus and Mare Erythræum, on the west by Libya Interior, and on the south by a Terra Incognita. It included therefore, in this sense, those regions which we now call Nubia and Sennaar, together with a part of Abyssinia.

II. The southern part of this region was a table land, traversed in all directions by chains of mountains. Farther northward, toward the middle of the Nile's course, it was an undulating country, interspersed with rocks, over which the river forms cataracts. The principal streams are the Astapus and Astaboras, the two tributaries of the Nile, to which we have already alluded.

Obs. 1. Ethiops (Al θ to ψ) was the expression employed by the Greeks to denote a person of a dark, sun-burned color (from a $i\theta\omega$, "to burn," and $\omega\psi$, "the

visage"), and they named all of such a color Ethiopes ($Ai\thetaio\pi e_s$), and their country Ethiopia ($Ai\thetaio\pi ia$), wherever situated. Homer makes express mention of the Ethiopians in many parts of his poems, and speaks of two divisions of them, the eastern and western. By the former he probably means the embrowned natives of Southern Arabia and India, who brought their wares to Sidon, and who were believed to dwell in the immediate vicinity of the rising sun. The Western Ethiopians of Homer are those of Africa.

2. Herodotus speaks of the Æthiopians as inhabiting the whole of Southern Libya (Libya with him is synonymous with our Africa), as distinguished from the Libyans who inhabited the Mediterranean coast, and the interior adjoining it. He also speaks of the Æthiopian Troglodytes, who lived to the south of the Garamantes, and tells strange stories of them; but these particular Æthiopians must be considered as included under the general name.

3. Strabo places the Hesperian Æthiopians near the Atlantic Sea, and south of the *Pharusii* and *Negretes*, who were themselves south of the *Mauri*. Herodotus also speaks of Asiatic Æthiopians, who formed part of the great army of Xerxes; but their locality is not easily determined. The historian, however, observes, that the Asiatic Æthiopians were black, like those of Libya, but differed from them in language, and had straight hair; whereas those of Libya had very *curly* hair, by which term some modern writers have too hastily concluded that the woolly hair of the negro is intended.

2. ÆTHIOPIAN TRIBES.

I. Herodotus distinguishes the Æthiopians into the inhabitants of Meroë, and the Macrobii or "Long-lived." In Strabo and Pliny we find other tribes referred to; but the most careful division is that by Agatharchides, who divides them according to their mode of life. Some carried on agriculture, cultivating the millet; others were herdsmen; while some lived by the chase, and on vegetables; and others, again, along the sea-shore, on fish and marine animals. These last he calls Ichthyophägi.

II. Besides these inhabitants of the plains, Æthiopia was peopled by a more powerful and somewhat more civilized shepherd-nation, who dwelt in the caves of the neighboring mountains, namely, the Troglodyta. A chain of high mountains runs along the African shore of the Sinus Arabicus. At the foot of the gulf they turn inward, and bound the southern portion of Abyssinia. This chain was, in the most ancient times, inhabited by these Troglodyta, in the loles and grottoes formed by nature, but enlarged by human labor. These people were not hunters; they were herdsmen, and had their chiefs or princes of the race. A still more celebrated nation, and one which has been particularly described to us by Herodotus, were the Macrobii, who, he says, were reported to surpass all men in beauty and large proportion of frame. These lived very far to the south, and, according to Heeren, very probably in what is now the country of the Somanlies, between the Straits of Bab el-Mandeb and Cape Gardafui; and the Somanlies may perhaps be their descendants.

III. The most remarkable people, however, were the inhabitants of the state and city of *Meroë*, a country which is commonly, though incorrectly, supposed to have been the parent source of Ægyptian civilization. A more particular account of this people will be given farther on.

3. ÆTHIOPIAN HISTORY.

I. The Æthiopians, according to an early and curious belief among the Greeks, stood highest of all nations in the favor of the gods, who at stated seasons left

Olympus to banquet among them. Their piety and rectitude are frequently mentioned. The Æthiopians, moreover, appear to have been intimately connected with the Ægyptians in the earlier ages of their monarchy, and an Æthiopian dynasty, as we have already seen, occupied at one time the throne of the Pharaohs. The people of Meroë seem also to have had the same religion, the same sacerdotal order, the same hieroglyphic writing, and the same rites of sepulture as the Ægyptians. Induced by these and other considerations, some of the ablest scholars of modern times have been led to regard Meroë as the parent of Ægyptian civilization, and to make this civilization to have proceeded from south to north. More recent investigations, however, seem to favor the idea that the Ægyptians were a Caucasian race, and that civilization proceeded from north to south; not down, but up the Nile; in which case Meroë will have to be regarded as colonized from Ægypt.

II. Among the early Pharaohs who carried their arms into Æthiopia was Thothmes I., who extended his power as far as the island of Argo, where he left a monument, now known by the name of Hagar e' dahab, "the golden stone." Thothmes II. penetrated to Napata, now El Berkel, the capital of Lower Æthiopia; and the third of that name appears to have extended his dominions still farther. Under the Ptolemies, there is evidence to show that Græco-Ægyptian colonies found their way into the regions of the Upper Nile, and along the shores of the Red Sea, and even as far as Axume and Adule in Abyssinia. These movements may account for the various styles of building and sculpture found along the banks of the Upper Nile, and may serve also to throw some light upon the question respecting Meroë. We know, from a passage in Diodorus, that after the Ptolemies came to reign in Ægypt, a great change took place in Æthiopian politics. In the time of the second Ptolemy, the Æthiopians had a king named Ergamenes, who had a knowledge of Greek manners and philosophy. Being weary of the yoke of priesthood, he went with a band of soldiers to "the inaccessible place" which contained the golden temple of the Æthiopians, and massacred all the priests.

III. After the Romans became possessed of Ægypt, we read of several expeditions into Æthiopia, but of no permanent impression made by them upon that region. Caius Petronius, prefect of Ægypt under Augustus, is said to have advanced as far as Napata, called Tanape by Dion, the first town of Æthiopia after Meroë. He defeated Queen Candace, who was obliged to sue for peace. But the Romans ultimately kept none of their conquests in that quarter. In subsequent times, it appears that they conquered again, and retained a strip of territory along the banks of the Nile, seven days' march above the first cataract; but this was given up by Dioclesian to the Nuba or Nabata, on condition that they should prevent the Æthiopians and the Blemmyes from attacking Ægypt. Of the vicissitudes and ultimate dismemberment of the ancient kingdom of Meroë we have no information. The early Christian historians seem to restrict the name of Æthiopians to a people occupying part of the country now called Procopius and Cedrenus call the Axumites Æthiopians. those times the name of Æthiopia has been given more particularly to Abyssinia, and the Geez, or sacred language of that country, has been called Æthiopian.

KINGDOM OF MEROË.

I. Měrčě, according to the ancient writers, was an island of Æthiopia, containing a city of the same name, and formed by the Nile, the Astapus, and the Astaboras. It could not, indeed, be called an island in the strictest sense of the term, since it was not completely inclosed by these rivers, but only very nearly

so. In the rainy season, however, it became an actual island by reason of the inundation of the rivers just mentioned. Its superficial contents exceeded those of Sicily rather more than one half.

II. To the west Meroë was bounded by sandy deserts, separating it from Darfur, which remained unknown in ancient times; to the east were the wild Shangallas and the Troglodytes. To the south dwelt a numerous tribe of Ægyptian origin, descended, it is said, from the soldier caste of that country; who, dissatisfied with the new order of things at the commencement of the reign of Psammitichus, had migrated, to the number of two hundred and forty thousand, into Æthiopia, where lands were assigned them by the monarch of that country in what is now the province of Gojam, and where they formed a state dependent upon that of Meroë.

III. The government of Meroë was in the hands of a sacerdotal caste, who chose a king from their own number, in accordance with the oracular decree of their chief divinity, the god Ammon, and again commanded him to die whenever they thought proper, stating to him that such was the will of their god. The trade of the country was entirely under their control, and they sent out numerous commercial colonies in various directions. They are said to have founded Ammonium in the Desert of Marmarica, and to have made the first settlement also at Thebes in Upper Ægypt. In other words, Meroë has been commonly regarded, in consequence of the ancient accounts respecting it, as the parent source of the civilization of Ægypt. This opinion, however, though ably advocated by Heeren and others, is, as we have already remarked, beginning to be now regarded as quite untenable. The oldest monuments of Ægypt are in the northern, not the southern part of that country, and craniological investigations prove the Ægyptians to have been a Caucasian race, and to have come into the country, therefore, from Upper Asia by the Isthmus of Suez. Meroë is more likely, therefore, to have received its civilization from Ægypt.

IV. The government of Meroë continued hieratic until the period of the second Ptolemy, when Ergamenes, at that time King of Meroë, tired of being priest ridden, fell upon the members of the sacerdotal order in their sanctuary, as already stated, and put them all to the sword. The power of Meroë, however, soon after declined.

V. Meroë was the first fertile country after crossing the Libyan Desert, and formed a natural resting-place for the northern caravans. It was likewise the natural mart for the productions of Inner Africa, which were brought for the use of the northern portion, and was reckoned the outermost of the countries which produced gold, while by the navigable rivers surrounding it on all sides, it had a ready communication with the more southern countries. As easy, owing to the moderate distance, was its connection with Arabia Felix, and so long as Yemen remained in possession of the Arabian and Indian trade, Meroë was the natural market for the Arabian and Indian wares in Africa.

VI. The city of Meroë was situated in the upper part of the island, on the bank of the Nile, and must have been a large and flourishing place. Its ruins are a little distance to the north of the modern *Shendy*, and have been well described by Caillaud and Hoskins, especially the latter. Mr. Hoskins is in favor of the commonly received theory respecting the origin of Ægyptian civilization, and consequently of assigning a very remote antiquity to Meroë, but the architectural remains of the place would seem by no means to countenance the supposition. These remains consist of pyramids, temples, and other structures of sandstone, more or less ruined. The site itself has no particular name, but a large village nearer Shendy bears the appellation of *Meroueer*.

PLACES BETWEEN MEROË AND ÆGYPT.

1. Primis or Premnis Magna, immediately north of the island of Meroë, and the junction of the two rivers, and probably not far from the modern El Makkarif. Wilkinson thinks that the name may perhaps be connected with that of Papremis, the Ægyptian Mars. This place was called Magna for distinction's sake from Primis Parva, farther down the Nile. 2. Napata, the capital of Queen Candace, taken and destroyed by the Roman commander Petronius, prefect of Ægypt in the time of Augustus. This was done in retaliation for an incursion of the Æthiopians, who had penetrated to Syene, and overwhelmed the garrison stationed there to protect the Ægyptian frontier. Pliny makes Napata to have been eight hundred and seventy Roman miles, or about eight hundred English miles above Syene, and three hundred and sixty Roman miles from the island of Meroë. The extensive ruins at Gibcl cl Birkel are supposed to correspond to it; but Hoskins is in favor of the modern Dongolah, one hundred miles lower down the Nile. 3. Phthuris, on the western bank, now probably Faras or Farras, with ruins.

4. Aboccis, now Aboo Simbel, on the western bank, with very remarkable ruins, among which are two temples justly regarded as the most interesting remains met with in Nubia, and, excepting Thebes, throughout the whole valley of the Nile. The smaller one of these temples appears to have been dedicated to Athor. the Ægyptian Venus, by the queen of Remeses II., and the larger to have been the work of Remeses himself. 5. Primis or Premnis Parva, now Ibrech, with Ægyptian and Roman remains. It is probable that the Romans, finding the position here so well adapted for the defence of their territories, stationed a garrison in this quarter as an advanced post. 6. Pselcis, called by Strabo Pselché, and now Dakkeh. Here Petronius defeated the generals of Candace. 7. Tutzis, in Coptic Thosh, and in ancient Ægyptian Pthah-Ei, or "the abode of Pthah," from its being under the special protection of that deity. The resemblance of the Coptic name Thosh with Ethaush, signifying, in the same dialect, "Æthiopia," is rendered peculiarly striking from the word "Cush," in the old Ægyptian language "Æthiopia," being retained in the Nubian modern name of this place, "Kish."

The tract of country from the island of Tachompso, opposite to Psclcis, down to Sycnc, was called from its extent Dodccaschanus, and under the Roman sway was reckoned as part of Egypt, under the appellation of Egypt and Ethiopia. The Romans constructed here, on both sides of the Nile, under Dioclesian's reign, military roads and forts. Tachompso is thought to signify "the Island of Crocodiles."

KINGDOM OF AXŪME.

I. The kingdom of Axime lay to the southeast of Meroë, and, as appears from a Greek inscription which has come down to us, was not only coextensive with the present kingdom of Tigré and part of Abyssinia, but even extended into Arabia. It is first noticed by the author of the "Periplus of the Erythræan Sea," a document written probably about the close of the second century; but how long this Axumite kingdom had existed before we are unable to say.

II. The two principal places were Axime and Adūle, the latter a port on the Sinus Arabicus, through which the Axumites maintained a commercial intercourse with Arabia and India. It was probably for some advantage to be secured to Greek merchants from Ægypt in the Indian trade that the Byzantine emperors paid a yearly tax to the Axumite king until the commencement of the Arab conquest.

PLACES IN AXUME.

1. Axūme or Auxūme, now Axum, about one hundred and twenty miles south of the modern Arkeeko, which last is on the immediate shore of the Red Sea. The present town consists of only six hundred houses, but the earlier city appears to have been large and flourishing, and was the great emporium for ivory, which was exported through Adūle. One of the most remarkable objects at Axum, at the present day, is a large obelisk, sixty feet high, made of a single block of granite. The engravings on it are not hieroglyphics, like those of Ægypt, nor does it exactly agree with them in shape. Though it is quadrilateral, one of the sides has a hollow space running up the centre from the base to the summit, which, instead of terminating in a pyramid, like the regular obelisks, is crowned with a kind of patera. The obelisks of Axum were originally fifty-five in number, and four of them, it is said, were as large as that now standing. Besides this last, another, but a small and plain one, also remains erect, with the fragments of many others lying near it. Among the other antiquities of Axum is a stone containing two inscriptions, one in rude Greek characters, the other supposed to be in Æthiopian. The Greek inscription shows the extent of the Axumite kingdom.

2. Adūle or Adūlis, on the Sinus Arabicus, the port of Axūme, and eight days journey from it. It is supposed to correspond to the modern Zulla. Cosmas, a merchant of the sixth century of the Christian æra, has preserved in his work, entitled "Christian Topography," a copy of a Greek inscription which he found here. Adule at this period was the port of Axume, where merchants traded for ivory and slaves, just as they now do at Massowa, on the same coast D'Anville incorrectly places Adulis at Arkeeko, about 22' farther north than Zulla.

THE EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA TO THE UNKNOWN REGIONS.

Leaving Berenice we come to, 1. Chersonesus, now Port Comol. 2. Mons Isius, so called from its temple of Isis, now Ras el-Dwaer. 3. Bathys Portus, now Arecca. 4. Dioscŏrūm Portus, now the Bay of Fushaa. 5. Gypsitis Insula. near the modern harbor of Suacim. 6. Gomadæorum Insulæ, now Daradata and Dolcofallar. 7. Monodactylus Mons, now Cape Assoy. 8. Ptolemais, with the cognomen Therôn or Epitheras, near the modern port of Mirza Mombarric, which supplies good fresh water. This place was founded by Eumedes, under Ptolemy Philadelphus, on account of the ship-timber found here, and the abundance of elephants in its vicinity. The traders to Arabia, Abyssinia, and the Indies touched here to take in refreshments and to refit. This place is famous in the astronomical calculations for the geographies of Eratosthenes, Marinus, and Ptolemy, founded on the observation that forty-five days before and forty-five days after the summer solstice the sun was vertical at Ptolemaïs.

9. Sebasticum Stoma, near the Bay of Massua. 10. Suche, a small town in the interior, belonging to a prince of the Arabians. 11. Daphnitis Insula, now Dollaca. 12. Colobón Promontorium, in the territory of the Colobi, a Troglodyte race. 13. Saba, a seat of the Sabæan Arabs, famed for its harbor and the hunting of elephants. It was in what is now the province of Gojam in Abyssinia. 14. Tenesis, in the interior, the country occupied by the Ægyptian military caste, who had migrated from Ægypt in the time of Psammitichus. 15. Adule, now Zulla, already mentioned. 16. Diodôri Insula, now Parim, a depôt of Greek traders. 17. Arsinoë, a Greek city and harbor, now the trading place

called Assab. 18. Bereniee Epi Dires, a Greek city on the strait termed Dire or Dere, now the strait of Bab el-Mandeb.

The coast of Æthiopia, from the straits to the eastern headland, or Aromata Promontorium, was much better known after the time of Ptolemy Philadelphus than it is now to Europeans. It was called Cinnamomophŏros or Aromatophŏros Regio, from its abounding in spices and perfumes. Here we find, 1. Pythangēlus, a harbor, famous for the elephant-hunts in its vicinity. 2. Aralītes Emporium, a celebrated mart, now Zeyla. The Sinus Avalites is now the Bay of Zeyla. 3. Pitholaus Promontorium, the country adjacent to which was particularly famed for myrth and incense. 4. Mundi (Moúvôov) Emporium, another mart, now Mete. 5. Cobe Emporium, probably the modern watering-place Chaji. 6. Elephas Mons, now Mount Felles or Baba Felek. 7. Arōmāta Promontorium, now Cape Guardafui. Off this headland lay Dioscoridis Insula, now Socotora, famed for its aloes.

In the first century of our era, the navigators to India discovered, south of the Aromata Promontorium, a rocky coast, inclosing a well-cultivated country in the interior, inhabited by negroes under the rule of Arabians from Yemen, who carried on trade there. This extensive coast is called in the Periplus Azania, a term comprehending not only the modern Ajan, but also the coast of Zanguebar, as far as Quiloa, provided this place be the Rhapta of the Periplus. Ptolemy gives this same tract of country the name of Barbaria, in which appellation we see lurking the term Berber, the name of the great aboriginal white race of northern Africa. Ptolemy's Sinus Barbaricus, therefore, will answer to the modern Gulf of Zanguebar. The author of the Periplus, however, makes the coast of Barbaria lie to the north, and extend from the straits of Dire to Aromata Promontorium, which is much more likely to be correct.

On the coast of Azania we notice, 1. Zingis Promontorium, commanded by the three-topped mountain Phalangis, now Cape Delgada. To the south came the Noti Keras, or Southern Horn, a name first given to the Aromata Promontorium, but afterward, with the advance of geographical knowledge, extended farther south. 2. Parvum et Magnum Littus, extending from Cape Baras to the promontory above Brava. 3. Then followed the seven Journeys, or δρόμοι, or seven harbors and marts, about a day's journey apart: that of Serapis, near the mouth of the River Dos Fugos, and under the line; the station of Nici or Niconis Dromos, northward of the modern island of Pate, &c. 4. We next find the Paralaai islands, or the modern islands of Lamo, &c., on what was called the "New Canal" (Καίνη λεγομένη Διώρυξ). 5. Two days' sail farther on brings us to Rhapta, the most distant trading-place of the Greeks, and the capital of Azania. The Rhaptum Promontorium is commonly supposed to be Cape Formosa. The articles of trade were Indian lances, knives, glass-ware, wine, corn, exchanged for ivory, rhinoceros horns, &c. Rhapta, therefore, was the farthest point to which Grecian commerce extended; yet the opinion still existed that the ocean to the south swept round to the west, and, stretching round Æthiopia and Libya, joined the Atlantic. There is no doubt that the Arabian possessions must have extended still farther south, perhaps to Madagasear; but they concealed their knowledge from the Greeks. Nevertheless, Ptolemy had hear cof a Promontorium Prasum, 7° farther south, of the Mare Asperum, and of Æthiopian Anthropophagi, which were about Cape Gado on the Mozambique Channel. He had likewise heard of the island of Menuthias, probably the present Peruba, on the coast of Zanguebar.

9. LIBYA INTERIOR.

This country, in the time of Ptolemy, was considered to be bounded on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by Mauritania, Numidia, Africa Propria, the Regio Syrtica, Cyrenaïca, and Marmarica, on the east by Ægypt and Æthiopia, and on the south by a Terra Incognita.

TRIBES OF LIBYA INTERIOR.

1. Gatūli, a powerful tribe to the south of Mauritania and Numidia, whose country answered to the southernmost part of Morocco, the region of Biledulgerid, and the more western portion of the Sahara, with its Oases. The principal branches of the race were, 1. The Autololes, lying to the south of the Atlas range, along the western coast. They had a city named Autolola, which Reichard supposes to be the same with the modern Agulon or Aquilon. 2. The Pharusii, immediately to the east of the former. These at one time destroyed several of the Carthaginian settlements on the coast of Mauritania, and in the course of traffic came as far even as Cirta in Numidia. They must not, however, be confounded with the Phraurusii of Ptolemy, who lived much farther inland, and appear to have occupied an Oasis in the vicinity of the Hesperii Æthiopes. 3. The Dara, whose name still remains in that of the modern Darah. 4. The Melanogatūli, in the more southern regions, a mixed race of Gatuli and Nigrita.

II. The Garamantes, to the east of the Gatuli, a powerful nation, occupying not only the Oasis of Phazania, or the modern Fezzan, but also a wide tract of country to the south, answering to the modern Tuarick and Tibboo regions, together with a part of Soudan and Bornou, as far east as Darfur. They carried on an active traffic with the Carthaginians, especially in slaves. Their chief city was Garama, now Gherma or Yerma, in Fezzan. Ptolemy mentions another city of theirs named Gira, on the River Gir, and which Mannert supposes to be the modern Kaschna.

III. The Nigrīta, to the south of the Gætuli, on the banks of the Nigir, and in a part of what is now Soudan. Their capital was called Nigīra, which Mannert makes the Gana of Edrisi and of later times. Another of their cities, named by Ptolemy Peside, would seem to have stood near the modern Timbuctoo.

IV. The *Darada*, on the coast, around the mouth of the River *Daradus* or *Senegal*, and answering, therefore, to the modern *Foulahs*.

V. The Hesperii Ethiopes, or Western Æthiopians, farther to the south, along the western coast, and extending also into the interior of the country. Their territory corresponded, therefore, to the modern Sierra Leone, the Ivory Coast, Gold Coast, Ashantee, Dahomey, &c. The whole of Central Africa, under the equator, Ptolemy calls by the general name of Agisymba (ἀΑγίσυμβα). It formed a country entirely unknown, and was peopled by the ancient poets with various monsters.

ISLANDS OFF THE WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

I. Cerne, an island on the western coast of Africa, mentioned in the Periplus, or Voyage of the Carthaginian Hanno. Here he established a colony, and it always formed, after this, the depôt of the Carthaginians on the Atlantic coast of Africa. Hanno, in his account of the voyage, says that it was the same dis-

tance from the Columns of Hercules that Carthage was. D'Anville, Rennell, and many others make it the modern Arguin. Gossellin, however, is in favor of the modern Fedala. Heeren, Mannert, and Gail place it farther north, in the present gulf of Agadir or $Santa\ Cruz$.

II. Insulæ Fortunatæ, now the Canary Islands. They derived their ancient name from the accounts given of their remarkable beauty, and of the abundance of all things desirable which they were said to contain. Their climate was one continued spring, their soil was covered with eternal verdure, and bloomed with the richest flowers, while the productions of earth were poured forth spontaneously and in the utmost profusion. Some modern writers suppose that the Fortunate Islands of the ancients refer to Madeira; but the Canaries have decidedly the better claim, if we follow the description of Pliny, which is taken from Juba, the Mauritanian prince. Juba calls one Nivaria, or "Snow Island," which is probably Teneriffe: another island he calls Canaria, from the number of dogs of a large size that were found there: Juba had two of these dogs. The Canary Islands, being situated within the general limits of the trade-wind, enjoy a fine climate, and are very healthy.

III. Insulæ Purpurariæ, to the north of the preceding, and so called from King Juba's having established in them a manufactory of purple. They are supposed to answer to Madeira and the adjacent islands.

Before concluding, we may make a brief mention of the celebrated island of Atlantis, which is said to have existed at a very early period in the Atlantic Ocean, and to have been eventually sunk beneath its waves. Plato is the first writer that gives an account of it, and he obtained his information, as he informs us, from the priests of Ægypt. The statement which he furnishes is as follows: In the Atlantic Ocean, over against the Columns of Hercules, lay an island, larger than Asia and Africa taken together, and in its vicinity were other islands, from which there was a passage to a large continent lying beyond. The Mediterranean, compared with the ocean in which these islands were situated, resembled a mere harbor with a narrow entrance. Nine thousand years before the time of Plato, this island of Atlantis was both thickly settled and very powerful. Its sway extended over Africa as far as Ægypt, and over Europe as far as the Tyrrhenian Sea. The farther progress of its conquests, however, was checked by the Athenians, who, partly with the aid of the other Greeks, partly by themselves, succeeded in defeating these powerful invaders, the natives of Atlantis. After this, a violent earthquake, which lasted for the space of a day and a night. and was accompanied by inundations of the sea, caused the islands to sink, and for a long period subsequent to this, the sea in this quarter was impassable, by reason of the slime and shoals. (Plat., Timaus, p. 24, seqq., ed. Bip., vol. ix., p. 296, seqq.—Id., Critias, p. 108, seqq., ed. Bip., vol. x., p. 39, seq.). Various theories have been founded on this narrative, one of which seeks to identify the Atlantis of Plato with America. But the whole subject is too fanciful to afford a basis for any serious reasoning.

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